A Nemesis of Mis-Government

J. J. Peel

Russia
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NEMESIS OF MISGOVERNMENT

AUTHORIZED BY

J. W. BUEL

THE AUTHOR UNDERTOOK A JOURNEY OF RESEARCH TO THE COUNTRIES OF EUROPE FOR THE PURPOSE OF OBSERVING THE DIFFERENT CONDITIONS RESULTING FROM THE VARIOUS FORMS OF ∴ ∴ ∴ ∴

REPUBLICAN, MONARCHICAL, AND EMPIRICAL GOVERNMENTS

Mr. Buel's reputation as a writer is well known by newspaper readers, as well as by scholars in literature, and the contents of this book are up to his usual standard of interest and vivid description of things that he saw and principles that he studied during a sojourn of three years in foreign countries.

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INTRODUCTION.

No country on the world's broad atlas, whether civilized or unexplored, presents so many interesting and anomalous phases as does Russia and its immense dependency, Siberia. The very mention of this latter tract of desert waste, its illimitable snow-fields, scintillating under a fugitive sun or stretching away in solemn shadows under a leaden sky until it infringes upon a circumambient horizon, excites our wonder and gives us the one idea of dreariness. But ah! not only is the wilderness of Siberia's vast and lonely plain a topic which may infuse the humblest pen with power to write a stirring chapter on wild nature, ferocious beasts, and storm-beaten shores freighted with wrecks of hardy adventurers; would that there were no more horrible stories of fact connected with the history of that country which, from infancy, has been an immense prison, or battle-ground—a grave-yard of men's ambitions, the penal ground for patriotic expiation! The MINES! There is no word that so thrills the Russian heart as this. "*To the Bastile!*" uttered during the most dreadful days in French history, carried with it but the shadow of a horror compared with that awful sentence: "*To the Mines of Siberia!*" in Russia. In France, Marat could only order his victims guillotined, and death came speedily and painlessly. But in Siberia

there was the knout and other instruments of torture added to the sentence which confined men and women to a life in the mines, where no light of day was ever permitted to enter, and where the voice of lamentation could never reach a sympathetic ear.

The history of Russia, such as has already been written, possesses for me an interest felt for that of no other country; and since the revolutionary crisis, which had its beginning or origin in the emancipation proclamation of Alexander II., such startling events have occurred in that nation that, being without parallel, they have focused the interest of the world, until to-day the Czar's dominions have become a country so alien in all its aspects of civilization, and rent internally by such horrible atrocities, that its current history is a story replete with exciting situations and horrifying culminations.

To obtain a true conception of Russia's policy, of her insubordinate elements, of the Nihilistic demonstrations, of her administration in dealing with the revolutionists, and lastly, of the exile life led by so many thousand persons in Siberia, I personally visited that country under auspices peculiarly favorable for the acquisition of information I specially desired. Before leaving America I made application to our acting Commissioner of Internal Revenue, Washington, D. C., with whom I have enjoyed an intimate acquaintance since boyhood, for such letters of introduction to our representatives in Russia as he might feel disposed to give. The application brought a response more favorable than I had expected, for forthwith he requested the Secretary of State to give me a letter which would secure for me the consideration of our Russian Minister, and, added to this, the General kindly wrote a personal letter to our representatives abroad.

THE SIBERIAN PONY EXPRESS.

TENTS OF TSCHUKSCHIS, ON THE SIBERIAN TUNDRAS.

With my courteous correspondence I felt assured that, notwithstanding the difficulties which attached to the mission I was about to undertake, my investigations could be prosecuted without fear of serious molestation, for I considered these letters an implied promise from my government to protect me so long as I committed no overt act against Russia, or manifested no revolutionary sympathy, although hundreds of persons have felt the heavy hand of the Czar's police for much less offence than an inquiry respecting Nihilism, two of which instances I must refer to:

Some time during the year 1881 an American citizen arrived in St. Petersburg, as a seaman, without a passport. Without reporting his case to our Minister or permitting him to send any communication to our representative, the Russian authorities searched the unfortunate man and found upon his person a letter of recommendation from his employers certifying to his sober and indus-

trious qualities. This letter was from the Remington Fire Arms Company, and this trivial fact the Russian officers used as a pretext for holding the man as a suspect. They said: "You are a revolutionist, and have been engaged making cartridges and arms for the Turkish Goverment to be used against us." They argued this way because the Turkish Government during the war with Russia had purchased large quantities of war munitions from Remington & Sons. The poor fellow was taken to the Fortress prison and there confined on a diet of bread and water for an entire week before the facts accidentally came to the knowledge of our *Charge d'Affaires*, who fiercely remonstrated at the outrage, whereupon the innocent captive was liberated.

Another instance of even greater hardship and injustice, was the confinement of a Jewish-American citizen who entered Siberia without a special permit from the Imperial Police, not knowing that such was required. It is easy to pass the Russian frontier into Siberia, but it is a most perplexing and next to impossible matter to get out again, and this American Jew having business in Siberia, and being provided with a passport into Russia, innocently crossed the Urals, and at the first place he was called upon to show his papers, he was apprehended and thrown into solitary confinement, where he remained for six months, notwithstanding the correspondence that has passed between the Russian authorities and our minister concerning his imprisonment. It is but justice to state, however, that our Minister expressed to me his doubts about the prisoner being an American citizen, though he claims protection from our government; but the hardships and injustice complained of grew out of the prisoner's inability, through lack of any privileges, to prove his citizenship beyond the passport he held, which, how-

ever, was not received as evidence because the period of its effectiveness had expired at the time of his arrest, passports being good for only six months from the date affixed to the *visa*—Russian consul's certificate.

Many other instances of intolerance might, and will be cited in the following chapters, and hundreds of cases of unmerciful injustice will be described to show how Russia maintains her autocracy and martial law, while her people groan beneath the burdens of misgovernment and repression.

Several books on life in Russia and Siberia have appeared since the Turko-Russian war, but few that I have read treat the subject in a manner that suggests a personal visit to those countries by the authors. Mackenzie Wallace wrote a very excellent and reliable work on Russia, but it appeared before the war, and though a standard history at the time of its first publication, it cannot be accepted as a history of Russia of to-day, so great have the changes been since that time. During the year 1881 a work appeared from the pen of Henry Lansdell, entitled "Through Siberia," that has met with much favor because it treats of a country about which so little is known, and because the author claims to have been a missionary and philanthropist. The facts are, however, that this work, I know, from observations made while in Siberia, to be a pure fiction so far as it relates to convict life; its statements concerning the prisons of Siberia are almost as wide of the truth as any of Munchausen's choice yarns. I do not say this through any prejudice, because I never saw Mr. Lansdell, and therefore have no private reasons for condemning his work. The London *Graphic*, reviewing the book, pronounces it an aggregated canard throughout. But I particularize Mr. Lansdell's fault only because my

declarations and descriptions in the succeeding pages are directly opposite to his assertions respecting the treatment of exile prisoners in Siberia, and because the Russian Government, having endorsed his work, might lead unthinking readers to suspect me of misrepresentations; I therefore write this to anticipate any reflections of this character. I was told by many prominent persons in Russia that the Government purchased several thousand copies of Mr. Lansdell's book and has been active in circulating it through several countries, because it represents convict life in Siberia as an existence of elegant ease and epicurean luxury, while it greatly disparages the treatment of prisoners in England and America.

What I have written concerning Russia is wholly without malice, for I must acknowledge a treatment while in that country of rare courtesy and consideration. I can in a great measure excuse the Government for the policy it pursues in dealing with its criminals. I can readily understand how difficult it is for a ruler educated to autocracy; one whose remote ancestors were Czars before him, with power so absolute as to repel advice from their own counsellors, except as it was asked for; one who has been reared in the belief that all the world owes homage to him—I can understand why such an one refuses his ear to the complaints of his subjects, particularly when they demand a constitution which would lead to an abridgment of the crown prerogatives whilst conferring the first taste of liberty to a people who never drew a breath of freedom. Besides, to acknowledge the policy of a revolutionary body, however weak, is always a dangerous precedent, and destructive in its influences. France is an illustration of this fact, and governments have ever regarded it safer to employ the full strength of their opposition by arms, rather than recognize any prin-

ciple, however inconsequential, when incorporated in an edict promulgated by insurrectionists. In this is found ample reason why the Czar confronts Nihilism with armor and steel, and this has brought on an internecine conflict which fills the very atmosphere of Russia with blood, and stamps every highway in that empyrical nation with red-handed murder.

It is my purpose to describe, in a dispassionate, ungarnished way, the crimes of Nihilism, Communism and Fenianism, to give some of the previously unwritten history of Russia, and to truthfully tell what I *know* concerning exile life in Siberia, with observations on the people and mode of living in that wonderful country. I have had every advantage for ascertaining all the facts, and am frank to say that no excuse is left me if I have made a single misstatement in the narrative following.

J. W. BUEL

A NEMESIS OF MISGOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER I.

I left America on the twenty-fourth day of June, for St. Petersburg, going by way of London, thence to Hull, and at the latter English port I engaged passage on a Wilson line steamer (Marsden) which took me by way of the North and Baltic seas. The latter part of the voyage was particularly pleasant, and occupied less than six days. We put into the port of Cronstadt, which is eighteen miles from St. Petersburg, as, owing to the extreme shallow water, vessels of any considerable burden cannot approach nearer the Russian capital. Cronstadt is a small town built upon an island, but though it has no natural defences, it is next to Gibralter in fortress strength. Stretching across the Finland mouth to the two mainlands, are ten forts of almost impregnable strength, and counting the island fort of solid masonry there are mounted more than one thousand immense guns, the fire from all of which may be concentrated on any point of entrance to the Gulf. So perfect are the defences that no fleet, however powerful, could approach within effective range of St. Petersburg without first destroying the ten strongest artificial forts of the world; while to these defences is added a channel of only nine feet, which makes the city safe from invasion by sea. A canal is now being dug, however, by American contrac-

HARBOR AND FORTRESS OF CRONSTADT.

tors, from opposite Peterhoff to the Neva, which will admit heavy ocean tonnage, but it will be guarded by the strongest engines of war that can be brought into requisition.

Upon landing at Cronstadt our vessel was boarded by five customs officials and passport examiners, one of whom detected an informality in my passport, which caused my apprehension as a "suspect." When leaving Washington City I neglected to have the Russian Consul's *visa* affixed to my papers, and this omission subjected me to much suspicion from a Government that naturally supposes every one a revolutionist who is not burdened with incontestible proofs of innocence.

I would never have been permitted to set foot in Russia but for the letters I bore from the State and Treasury Departments, upon the presentation of which I was given a paper containing my promise to report in person at the Third Section in St. Petersburg, on the following morning. I was then allowed to proceed to the city and take lodgings at the Hotel de France, but under the surveillance of the Imperial Police. No hotel in Russia is allowed to entertain any one, whether a native or foreign subject, without first securing their passport, which must be registered with the police, and the names of all guests must be prominently posted on a blackboard in the hotels where any one entering can see them.

I, together with the other passengers, was taken up to the city in a tender and landed at the Custom House. Being wholly unacquainted with the Russian language, I would have fared badly but for assistance tendered me by a fellow-passenger who kindly spoke for me. Every bit of paper I had, on which there was any writing, was critically examined by a score of underlings and then conveyed to a higher functionary for inspection and

36 THE CUSTOM HOUSE EXAMINATION AT ST. PETERSBURG.

judgment. My things were unceremoniously dumped out and all articles of clothing were searched with the care an old soldier manifests when looking for carnivorous insects.

After undergoing the customs examination, I passed out into the street and was immediately received by a galling fire of solicitations from droshky drivers, whose unintelligible jabbering and strong entreaties so confounded me that I knew not what to do, as my friend had disappeared, leaving me in a condition which I may well explain as tongues and lungs everywhere but not a voice to speak to me intelligently.

If there is anything that will make a cynic laugh or startle a cosmopolite with wonder, it is a droshky driver in his quizzical *tout ensemble.* The municipal law requires him to wear a large, dark-blue stole, gathered at the waist by a band, and on his head he wears a covering which is half hat and half cap; from under this quaint headgear emerges a profuse quantity of hair cut in a sharp line all round. Hair cutters in Russia use a large cup which is inverted and placed over their customer's head, and then, with a large pair of shears, they trim squarely around the cup's edge. The result must necessarily be comical, especially since among no other people does the hair grow so abundantly.

When I was first assailed by these peculiar, monkish-appearing, but good-natured fellows, and had taken a good look at their peculiar little vehicles, I could not refrain from laughter, at which, like a number of imitative apes, they fell to laughing also. After several minutes spent in contemplating my unhappy condition, the gentleman who had assisted me in the Custom House, appeared again, and engaging a carriage we drove together to the Hotel de France, where I was duly registered. My next

step was to engage a guide, which I found in the person of Charles Kuntze, a German who could speak several languages, whose services to me became absolutely inestimable.

STREET SCENE IN ST. PETERSBURG, SHOWING DROSHKIES AND DRIVERS.

It so happened that at the time of my arrival in St. Petersburg, our minister had not yet reached the capital,

and the *Charge d' Affaires* was on a brief visit to Finland; I therefore had no other resource left me except to obey orders and trust to luck. In obedience to instructions I called at the Third Section, where I was assured that my passport would be waiting me, but I was referred to another place, and from there to still another, and then back again to the Third Section. This shuttle-cock business continued active for four days, when at length I found that it was a way they had in Russia; that I was thus kept in momentary expectancy until the authorities could take information on me and definitely determine my business in the country. At the expiration of the fourth day our minister returned, and upon reporting my case to him he immediately procured my passport and relieved me from further police surveillance.

The Third Section is one of the most noted institutions in Russia; simple, unpretentious in title, but within its now crumbling walls have been enacted some of the most shocking tragedies known in history. It is a building occupying one entire square and divided off into public offices, audience chambers, and prisons, though it is no longer used for the detention of criminals. Under the iron rule of Nicholas I., those who were ordered to the Third Section rarely ever breathed the air of freedom again, their sentence being either death or transportation. The place derives its name from the fact that the city was formerly divided into three police districts, all under the Minister of Police, whose office was in the Third Section. It is told by those resident of St. Petersburg at the time that Emperor Nicholas I. had a private office in the Third Section where it was his custom to repair at a certain hour each day for the purpose of keeping himself thoroughly advised on all matters appertaining to the police administration. It is also declared that there was

SUSPECTED PEASANTS BEFORE THE OFFICERS OF THE "THIRD SECTION."

a trap door in the floor of his office which was used for a singular purpose, viz: when any female member of the reigning family was discovered inveighing against his administration—which was by no means an uncommon occurrence—the offender was ordered to appear before him at his office. When there he gave such persons much fatherly advice about their transgressions and, at a signal, the trap door, upon which they were made unconsciously to stand, suddenly gave way precipitating the woman to her arm-pits. While in this constrained position, unable to move, she was severely lashed by a person stationed underneath. In this wise the offender was prevented from knowing who was administering the castigation, nor could the person below know whom he was punishing.

Upon meeting our minister I presented him with the letters I bore, as already quoted, and then asked him for such advice as he might give that would be serviceable to me. His reply was a genuine surprise, and one which I am not likely to forget soon. Said he:

"Your purpose, I discover from the commissioner's letter, is to gather facts concerning Nihilism."

I told him that was chiefly the object of my visit to Russia, whereupon he replied:

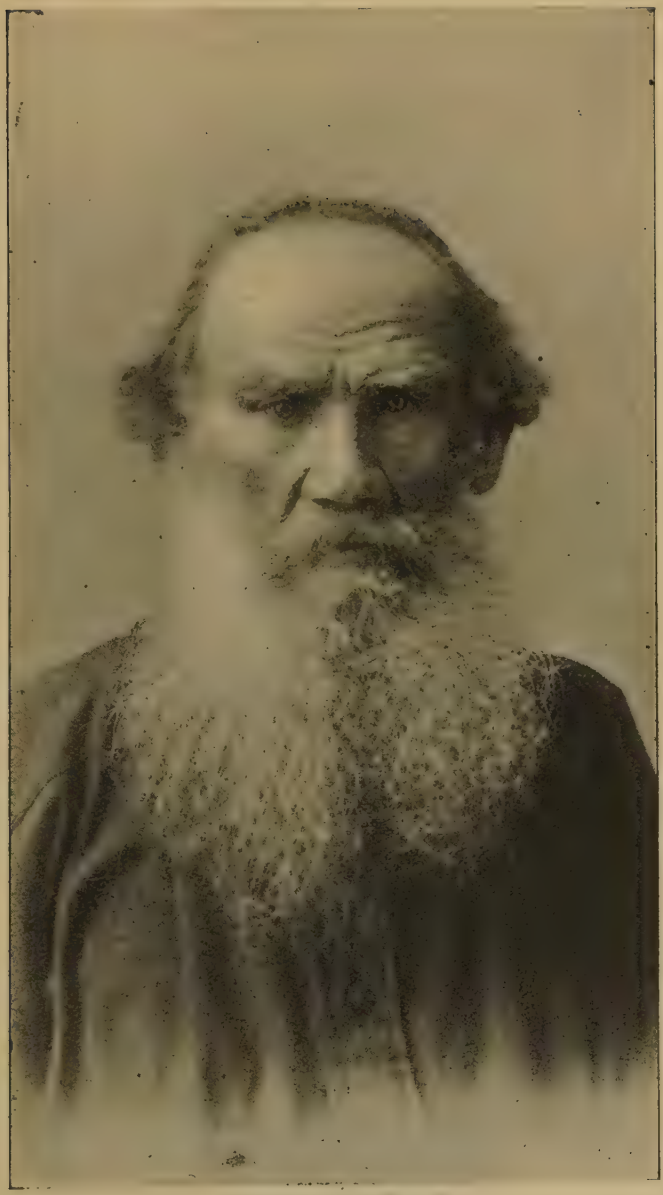
"If my advice is worth anything, I will freely give it to you, and it is this: *stop where you are;* don't take the first step toward investigating that subject. The reason I thus advise you is because Russia is under martial law and the least suspicion excited against one here is liable to be followed by arrest, and once in the toils it is next to impossible to get out. It matters not how much any government may remonstrate against the arrest of its subjects, Russia is not prone to regard them. So, for your own safety, I say abandon the idea of investigating Nihilism while on Russian soil."

I thanked the minister for his well-intended advice, and then replied:

"You put the matter in a very gloomy light indeed, much worse than I expected; nevertheless, I don't believe it is customary for an American citizen to give up a mission that he has set his head and heart upon performing, because the sun has set before his face."

He was evidently pleased with my answer, though he sympathized with my poor judgment, for at once he proffered such services as he was able to give, and promised to look after me if I should suddenly disappear. At my request he then wrote me a letter to Count Tolstoi, former Minister of the Interior, also acting Prime Minister. During the forced retirement of Alexander III. Count Tolstoi was practically the Czar of Russia, all audiences on Imperial business being held with the Count and by him communicated personally to the Czar.

AN EXILES CABIN IN THE FOREST.



COUNT D. R. TOLSTOI,

Former Minister of the Interior and Chief Councillor of the Czar.

Before leaving St. Petersburg in August, for Siberia, our Minister arrived in the Russian capital, and presented his credentials as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court at St. Petersburg. I had a very pleasant interview with him, and through him and Count Tolstoi my request for an interview with the Czar was communicated. Two days later his Excellency, V. Pleve, presented me with an answer from the Czar, who expressed regrets that he was holding his annual conference at Gatchina Palace with his generals, which would not be concluded for twelve days, but at the expiration of that time it would give him great pleasure to receive me. My time was too limited to admit of so long a delay, as I had already made my preparations and engaged an interpreter in Moscow to accompany me on my tour through Siberia.

Upon my return to St. Petersburg, in October I again called on our minister, who gave me a satisfactory letter.

HOUSES OF RUSSIAN PEASANTS.

HON. CHARLEMAGNE TOWER, AMBASSADOR TO RUSSIA.

It is the etiquette of the Court that when a foreign subject desires an interview with any member of the Imperial Court, his request must come through a letter from the representative of the country to which the applicant belongs, although he may have been previously recommended. This is the reason the second letter from the Legation was obtained and presented. Two dates were affixed to my letters representing the difference between the English and Russian calendars, the latter still holding to the ancient style, which is twelve days behind the calendars of all other civilized nations.

At this season Minister Tolstoi, who had his residence in the suburbs of St. Petersburg, gave audiences only twice each week, and as I was misinformed as to the days he had set for this purpose, it was not until the third day that I called to present my letter. It chanced, however, that the Count was not in, but I was received, nevertheless, by His Excellency, V. Pleve, Director of the Ministry of the Interior and Privy Counsellor to the Emperor, and Minister of Police. I was pleased to find him a very affable gentleman, and through my interpreter he promised me every aid I might require in prosecuting my investigations. After conversing with him for several minutes he made an engagement to meet me again on the following day, and also to present me to the Prefect of Police on the Monday following—this being Saturday.

At the time appointed I met the Minister of Police again, and also the Prefect of Police, both of whom gave me considerable information, and at their request I submitted in writing a series of questions on Nihilism, the answers to which they promised to give me on the Wednesday following. Parting with them I left my letter of introduction with Count Tolstoi's secretary,

and on the succeeding day received a note from the Count, written in French, saying he would be pleased to see me at his office at eleven o'clock, Tuesday.

I was punctual in keeping the appointment, but upon presenting my card to his valet I was told that it was etiquette of the Court to receive only persons with whom appointments are previously made, and that no one is admitted unless he appear in Court dress—dress suit. Though embarrassed somewhat at first, I was equal to the occasion, for I sent my regrets to the Count, coupling them with the observation that in America every citizen is a sovereign, and that with us dress suits are used only on party occasions; that it was with inexpressible chagrin I was compelled to acknowledge the fact that I never owned a dress suit. In a moment after, the valet returned and ushered me into the Count's presence, who advanced and greeted me in so cordial a manner, laughingly commenting upon his valet's rigid Court mannerism, that I entirely forgot the presence of royalty, and entered into conversation with a freedom from all restraint.

Count Tolstoi spoke with some warmth concerning the reflections cast upon Russia by other civilized countries, and earnestly denied the insinuation that the administration was lacking in mercy or that every measure and policy pursued was not thoroughly justified. He complained that Russia was the most misrepresented country on the globe, and as an earnest of his assertions he proffered to me any assistance I might need to learn any and all facts appertaining to Nihilism, and the manner in which the laws are administered. He gave me access to the Imperial Library containing all the political records, and assured me that I might talk and enquire about Nihilism without the least fear of molestation, though he admitted

that without a disclosure of my purpose I might have encountered some trouble. My sole purpose in visiting the Count was to procure from him a promise that I would not be subjected to suspicion or annoyance by reason of any inquiries I might institute, and to this end I frankly told him the purposes of my visit and promised to treat Nihilism in my work with all the fairness that my comprehension of the subject permitted. Before leaving him he asked me as a favor to incorporate in my book the Government's position taken in the four leading political trials, viz: the trial of the Emperor's assassins; of those suspected of attempting to blow up the Winter Palace; of the assassins of Gen. Melikoff; and the trial of Vera Zassulitch, who shot Gen. Trepoff, Minister of Police. I told him I should be glad to do him such a favor if he would prepare the matter; this he agreed to do, and to transmit the manuscript through our consul to me in America, which promise, however, he did not fulfill, and I am therefore absolved from the obligation.

On Wednesday, the day following my interview with Count Tolstoi, I called on Minister Pleve again, who gave me answers to the questions I had prepared, but they were of an indefinite character, in fact evasive, and of no value, though Count Tolstoi had also promised that the questions I had submitted—with one exception—should be answered fully. The question to which direct exceptions were taken, was this:

"Explain why noble families sympathize with the Nihilists?"

This, I was told, involved the entire administration of the Czar and to explain it fully would expose certain matters which the government held as strictly private.

I was very much interested in Minister Pleve, because of the important part he acted in the most thrilling

drama of Russian history, and I spent nearly an hour in a most agreeable conversation with him, though we had to talk through my interpreter. At the time of the Czar's assassination he was in very high repute as a skilful detective, and upon the removal of Gen. Trepoff—after recovering from the wound inflicted by Vera Zassulitch—Mons. Pleve was appointed Minister of Police. The assassination of the Czar brought his detective skill

HIS EXCELLENCY, VAJESLAF KONSTANTINOVITCH PLEVE, MINISTER OF POLICE.

into service again, and it was through his ingenuity that six of the accomplices were apprehended and brought to trial. His last act of great public consequence was to affix his signature to the death sentence of the assassins, which many believed no officer had the courage to do, because of the threats made in hundreds of anonymous communications to kill every officer remotely con-

cerned in the executions. But Pleve did not hesitate, and while his life is yet liable to pay the forfeit of that act, he takes few if any precautions to guard against assassination.

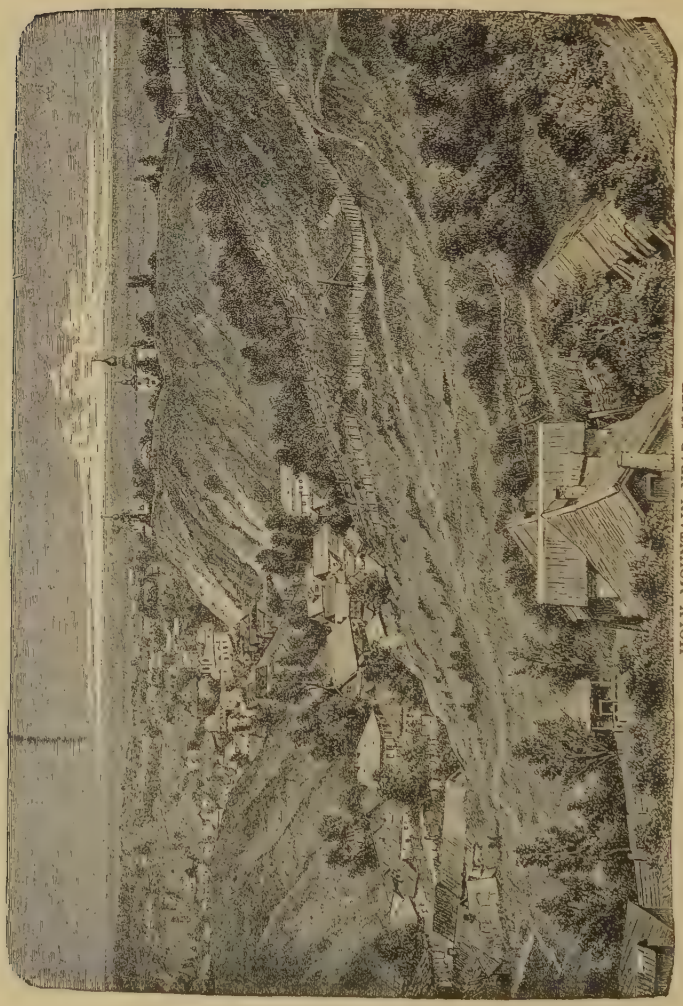
I asked him for his photograph for use in my book, and he promised to have one taken and send it to me at an early day, a promise which he kept.

CHAPTER II.

PROVIDED with what I considered a complete protection from officious servants of the Government, I set about gathering statistics and familiarizing myself with the social and political life of Russia since the accession to power of the Romanoffs. I was somewhat surprised to learn that many interesting portions of Russian history have never been given to the world, because of their reflections on the ruling family, and I now take what I conceive to be commendable pride in presenting several material incidents for the first time in print. It is essential to the thorough understanding of the causes which have combined to render Russia so unhappy, by giving life to a movement that is without precedent or similitude, that at least a brief or outline history of the country should be familiar to the reader, and it is this which shall be my excuse for presenting it here; added to this general history are several facts which, so far as my information extends, were never before published.

The Russian Empire embraces an area of 8,444,766 square miles, or considerable more than twice the area of all our States and Territories. This vast region, which extends from the arctic to the torrid zone, has an estimated population of 85,000,000, and though the most fertile and extensive agricultural country in the world, there are proportionately fewer persons following pastoral pursuits in Russia than in any other civilized nation.

The Empire is divided into about one hundred governments, which are ruled directly by Governors whose powers, especially in Eastern Siberia, are almost absolute. Of these governments fifty are in Europe, having a population of 66,000,000; Poland contains 6,000,000 souls



HOLY MOUNTAIN NEAR KIEF.

Finland, 2,000,000; the Caucasus, 5,000,000. Siberia proper has a population of 4,000,000, and Central Asia 3,000,000. These are approximate figures based on the census of 1880. In this broad extent of country about two-thirds of the entire population profess the Greek religion. The Dissenters number about one million; the Roman Catholics two and one-half millions; Protestants and Mohammedans about the same as the Catholics; Jews, two millions. There are also one quarter of a million Pagans, worshipping idols; fifty thousand Armenians, and about ten thousand Scopsi, a denomination that will be described fully hereafter.

Russia's national debt, since the loan of 1882, is about four billion roubles—the paper rouble being equivalent to fifty cents, makes the total debt, in United States currency, two billion dollars. The expenses of the Government average nine hundred million roubles, two hundred millions of which are army appropriations.

The Emperor is allowed twenty million roubles annually for the support of the forty-four members of the royal family. Russia now has a mobilized army, ready at any time to be called out for service, of over two million men; and her fleet, consisting of two hundred and sixty-three vessels, carries sixteen hundred and two guns.

The original settlers of Russia were Sclavonians, whose history in the Empire dates from about B. C. 400. A century later they founded the cities of Novgorod the Great, and Kief—both of which cities afterward became capitals of the country—and Ilmen. Kief has always been regarded as the Holy City, to which annual pilgrimages are made for worship.

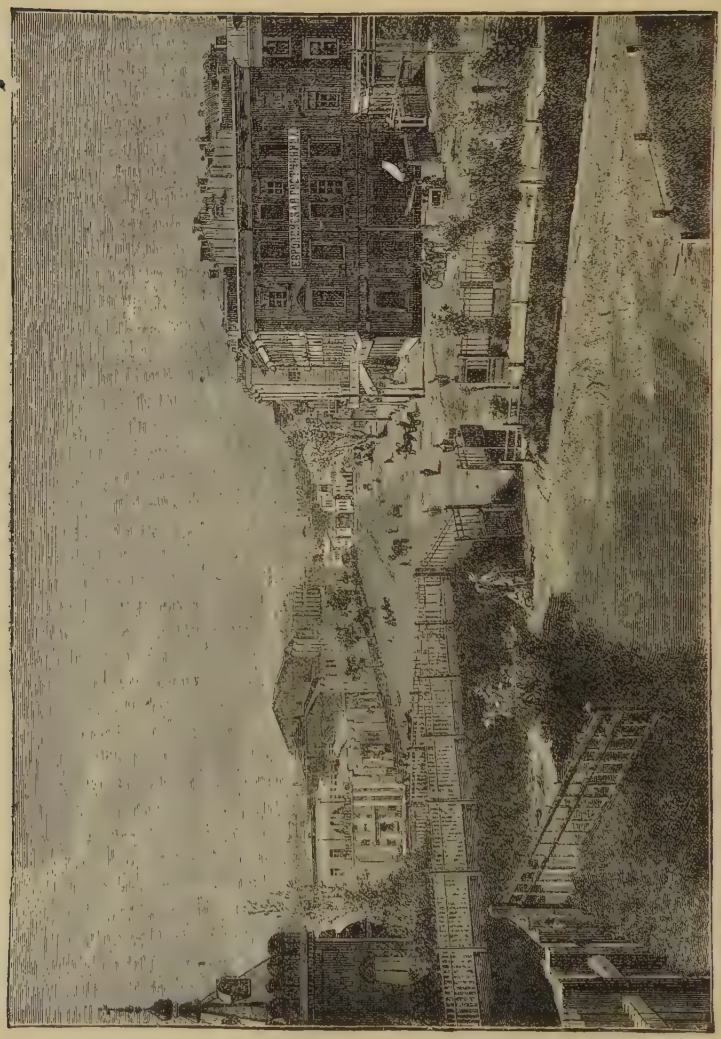
This ancient capital, though much of its former glory has departed, is still one of the chief places in Russia; among its many squalid appearing buildings, always sug-

RUSSIAN SLEDGES, CITY OF KIEF IN THE DISTANCE.

gestive of great poverty, is a palace provided, and still maintained, for the Imperial family. In Russia there are twenty-one palaces kept for the exclusive use of the Czar, many of which never once sheltered his Majesty; they are always kept in readiness for him, however, being attended by hundreds of servants, and having stables containing many fine horses. I was surprised to learn this, and upon asking why such a useless extravagance was permitted, was answered: "The Czar is supposed to look after the interests of his entire Empire; his presence, therefore, may be expected at any time in any place therein; so palaces are provided for his entertainment in various parts of Russia in order that at no time may he have to lodge in apartments not befitting his Majesty." This answer quite satisfied me.

The earliest Government of Russia was a Republic, which continued for about one thousand years, when, in 851, a violent political disturbance took place which divided the Republic into revolutionary territories and inaugurated a warfare that threatened extermination. The Republic continued to exist in name, however, until 862, when a council, chosen from the various factions, with the view of conciliating differences and protecting the country from invasions, which neighboring tribes threatened, convened at Novgorod, and after lengthy deliberations decided to invite a Varago-Russian, named Rurik, to accept the sovereignty, which he did, and Russia then became an Empire, Novgorod remaining the capital of the new Government.

There is very little history known connected with the Rurik dynasty. Vladimir was the greatest sovereign of that House. It was he who introduced Christianity into the Empire in 980, and at his death, which occurred in 1015, he was buried at Kief, and the church honored



PRINCIPAL STREET OF KIEF, SHOWING CHURCH ON THE LEFT CONTAINING VLADIMIR'S REMAINS.

his name by declaring him a saint. Dimetrius was also a prominent ruler in the Rurik dynasty, and he is regarded as a saint by the orthodox church. It was Dimetrius who founded Moscow in the twelfth century. A portion of his skull, the size of a silver half-dollar, is still preserved and exposed to view in the Royal Chapel at Moscow. Every day hundreds of pious Russians visit this chapel and reverently kiss the ghastly relic, murmuring their prayers, and crossing themselves at the same time. It is said that upon the occasion of a visit to this chapel by an American lady, seeing so strange and disgusting a performance by so many mouths, she grew sick and vomited. The act, as I saw it performed by dozens during my visit to Moscow, affected me almost as seriously as it did the lady referred to.

The house of Rurik continued to rule Russia until the year 1613, when an interregnum occurred, owing to the fact that there was neither issue nor hereditary branch to succeed the last ruler. The Empire continued, however, by the election of Michael Faodorvitch Romanoff as Emperor, who ruled from the year 1613 until 1645. He was succeeded by his son, Alexis Michaelovitch, who was the father of Peter the Great. His reign continued from 1645 until 1676. The other rulers then came in the order named.

Feodor Alexovitch, 1676-1682. Ivan Alexovitch the V., who was an idiot, being senior brother of Peter Alexovitch (Peter the Great), the Government became a duarchy until the former's death, which occurred in 1696, when Peter the Great, who was in fact ruler from 1682, continued on the throne until his death in 1725.

Catharine I., wife of Peter the Great, ruled from 1725 until 1727, when she was poisoned by Count Ostermann

Peter II., nephew of Peter the Great, 1727 until 1730.

Anna Ivanovana, niece of Peter the Great, ruled from 1730 until 1740, when she was banished to Siberia and died in exile.

Ivan Antonovitch succeeded, but ruled only one year, until 1741, when he was thrown into prison, where he died.

Elizabeth, youngest daughter of Peter the Great, ruled from 1741 until 1761. She died without marrying, but adopted the grandson of Peter I., who succeeded her as Peter III., but he ruled only one year, until 1762, when he was strangled by order of his wife, Catharine II.

Catharine II. ruled from 1762 until 1796.

Paul I., Catharine's only son, who was declared illegitimate, ruled from 1796 until 1801, when he was strangled in his palace by Count Parlen.

Alexander I., son of Paul I., ruled from 1801 until 1825. He died from the effects of poisoned feet, the poison being secretly placed in his boots.

Nicholas I., second son of Paul I., ruled from 1825 until 1855, when he ordered his physician to prepare him a dose of poison, which he took on account of his defeat by England and the Allied Forces in the Crimean War.

Alexander II. ruled from 1855 until 1881, when he was assassinated, after many unsuccessful attempts, March 1st, Russian style, 1881.

Alexander III. began his rule upon the day of his father's (Alexander II.) death, and continued to reign prosperously until his death November 1st, 1894, when he was succeeded by his son Nicholas Alexandrovitch, under the title of Nicholas II.

The members of the ruling family are as follows:

Emperor Alexander III. Alexandrovitch, born March 10th, 1845; he married Maria Sophia Frederica Dagmar,

daughter of Christian IX. King of Denmark. The Empress, who is a sister to the Princess of Wales and King George, of Greece, was born November 26th, 1847, and married the Emperor, November 9th, 1866. She was engaged to the Prince Imperial Nicholas, elder brother of Alexander II., who, however, was seized with a dreadful malady brought on by his own indiscretions, and died before reaching manhood. On his death-bed he begged his brother, who became heir in succession, to marry the Princess, which request was complied with.

GOING TO CHURCH TO CHRISTEN THE LATEST ROYAL INFANT.

The children of this union are:

Nicholas Alexandrovitch, the Prince Imperial, who was born May 18th, 1868, now Emperor.

George Alexandrovitch, Grand Duke; born May 9th, 1871.

Xenia Alexandrovna, Grand Duchess; born April 6th, 1875.

Michael Alexandrovitch, Grand Duke, born December 5th, 1878.

Olga Alexandrovna, born in May, 1882.

The christening ceremonies of this infant princess occurred at Peterhoff, the Czar's present residence, and was one of the most gorgeous affairs that ever took place in Russia.

Brothers and Sisters of the Emperor—Vladimir Alexandrovitch, Grand Duke; born April 22, 1847; married August 28th, 1874, to Princess Marie, of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

Alexis Alexandrovitch, Grand Duke; born January 14th, 1850. Morganatically married, but his wife was never acknowledged by the Court, and he was compelled to sever his relations with her.

Marie Alexandrovna, grand duchess; born October 17, 1853; married to the Duke of Edinburg, second son of Queen Victoria, January 23, 1874.

Sergius Alexandrovitch, Grand Duke; born May 11th, 1857.

Paul Alexandrovitch, Grand Duke; born October 3d, 1860.

Uncles and Aunts—Olga Nicolaievna, grand duchess; born September 11th, 1822; married to Charles, now King of Wurtemburg, July 13th, 1846.

Constantine Nicholaievitch, Grand Duke; born September 21st, 1827; married September 11th, 1848, to the Princess Alexandra Josefovna, the daughter of Joseph, late duke of Saxe Altenburg.

There are sixteen other members of the Royal Family, children of the grand dukes and grand duchesses, all of whom receive a large annual pension from the Government.

Few of the grand dukes have held any office requiring active service. The grand duke Nicholas was field Marshal at the outbreak of the war with Turkey, but his

father, Alexander II., had so little confidence in him that he decided to assign the chief command of the Russian forces to one of his older Generals. Learning this, Nicholas presented himself before his father, and with pistol in hand declared that rather than suffer such disgrace he would blow his own brains out before his father's eyes. This threat induced the Emperor to give the chief command to Nicholas, but before a year had elapsed there was such a general complaint of his extravagance and incompetency that the Czar was forced to remove him and appoint Gen. Skobeleff, the hero of Goek-Teppe, in his place.

PYROTECHNIC DISPLAY FROM GUARD BOATS IN HONOR OF THE BIRTH OF A ROYAL CHILD.

The grand duke Constantine was, for some time, rear Admiral of the Russian fleet, but there developed among the marines such strong revolutionary sympathies that in the spring of the present year he was removed, and the position given to the Grand Duke Alexis. The latter at once began a secret examination of the men in the

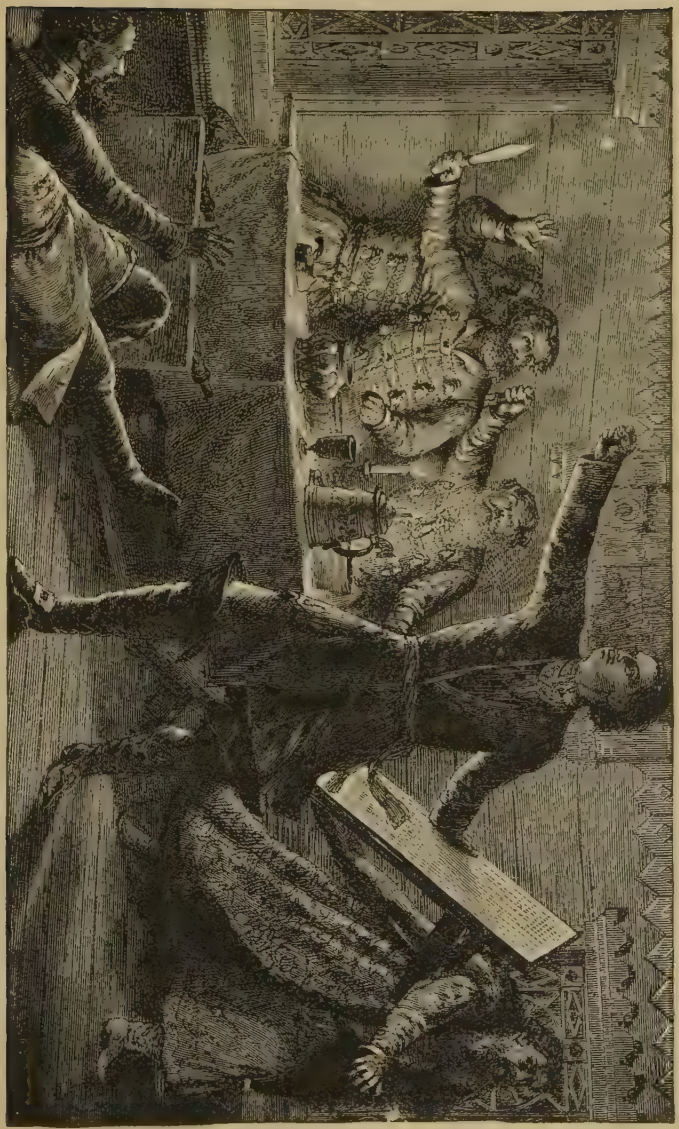
navy, which resulted in the arrest and conviction of three hundred officers and privates in the marine service, all of whom were sent into exile.

CHAPTER III.

THERE are three great historical characters among the rulers of Russia, viz: Peter the Great, Catharine II., and Alexander II. Of these three the first named is pre-eminent in history, while they all have made popular reputations in the order named.

Even in boyhood, Peter the Great exhibited such traits of character as indicated his special capacity for the position he was hereditarily called to fill. His brother, upon whom the crown fell by succession, was an idiot, and at a very youthful age the responsibilities of Imperial State, under particularly perplexing circumstances, became his inheritance.

His early life was characterized by those acts of bravery which grew in importance as maturer years came upon him. It is told of him that shortly after his accession to the throne a conspiracy was formed to consummate his assassination. Those in the plot had a meeting place in a peasant's house, where they secretly came together and arranged their plans for getting into his bedroom, and for disposing of the body after death. By some means, which tradition does not explain, Peter heard of the conspiracy, and with a spirit of reckless bravery undertook the task of visiting punishment upon his enemies. He accordingly posted himself in a place near the house where, unobserved, he might witness the assembling of the assassins. When five of the party



PETER VANQUISHING HIS WOULD-BE ASSASSINS.

had collected, and while they were taking an oath to accomplish his murder, Peter broke in the door, and with no other weapon than his powerful arm, he rushed upon the affrighted men and knocked them into a condition of insensibility, then taking away their daggers he kept them as a memento of his adventure.

This great ruler was only seventeen years of age when he ascended the throne, but he was both warrior and statesman; a sovereign full of ambition and the courage to force any extremity. His first desire was to extend his Empire, and this he undertook by engaging Charles XII., of Sweden, in a war which lasted, through shifting fortunes, for many years. At the beginning of this war Russia did not extend further north than the Neva River, the territory lying beyond belonging to Sweden. As a preliminary to the acquisition of Finland, Peter the Great wrote a letter to Charles XII., asking the favor of building a small country residence on the north bank of the Neva. He had already founded St. Petersburg, and his request for permission to build a small house, even on Swedish territory, but adjoining his own dominions, was construed by Charles as nothing more than a natural desire, as the spot selected was embowered by beautiful trees and occupied a delightful site, commanding an extensive view up and down the river. The request was therefore granted, and the wily Peter thus obtained his first footing on Swedish soil, which he never relinquished. It was a small house, in which Peter held counsel with his officers, and one portion was fitted up for a workshop, for, although Czar, he was a skilful mechanic, whose chief delight was the turning-lathe and handling of all kinds of workmen's tools.

Before engaging in war, Peter equipped himself fully by building a large fleet, providing abundant munitions,

enlarging and drilling his army, and preparing all his forts and other defenses.

When he had thus carefully arranged for a powerful campaign, war was declared, upon some trivial diplomatic pretext, and there followed a twelve years' contest that has rarely been equalled for fierceness in all history.

But the fortunes of war were all against him until his exchequer was nearly exhausted, his troops were beaten and driven at every point, the army became insubordinate, and there appeared no hope; yet Peter was one of those rare characters that knew no such word as fail; every blow he received only served to impassion him to more determined acts. While in this extremity three hundred of his officers conspired to sacrifice him, and had arranged all their plans. At the last moment he heard of the conspiracy, and forthwith covertly despatched a force of trusted men to arrest them, not in a body, but one at a time so that no alarm might be occasioned, for he realized how little sympathy there was among the people for his administration. When all the arrests were made, and the men conveyed to Moscow, he attended upon them in person and announced their fate, which was to be decapitation. Peter was an interested spectator of the executions, his calculating deference being manifested by the following incident: Among the number sentenced to death was a young, gallant officer who had been a great favorite of the Czar's. This man, as he laid his head upon the block, in order to avert his gaze from the executioner's sword, by a great exertion contrived to turn his face sideways, which lifted one of his shoulders upon the block. On seeing this Peter rushed up and catching hold of the hair of his victim, violently drew back the head into proper place, at the same time administering this rebuke:

"A brave and considerate fellow indeed, who would disgrace the headsman by causing him to cut your shoulder rather than your neck."

GREAT BELL IN KREMLIN, MOSCOW.

It was less than a year after the executions at Moscow that another conspiracy was discovered, headed by Pe-

ter's favorite mistress, a woman who is represented as exceedingly beautiful and possessing such charms of person as won from the Czar an affection that subordinated his judgment and rendered him almost plastic in her hands. She had arranged to deliver him into the power of his enemies, but her purpose was disclosed to Peter in time for him to foil the conspirators and bring them to a judgment similar to that previously administered in Moscow. The woman was among those adjudged guilty of treason, and she was brought to the block arrayed in a long white robe covered with beautiful lace; around her neck she wore a circlet of diamonds, a gift from the Czar, and her uncommonly long, black hair was allowed to hang disheveled over her shoulders. She is reported to have presented an appearance which would have turned any heart but that of the inflexible Peter, and even upon him she produced such an impression that he broke into tears, and throwing himself upon her neck in an agony of grief exclaimed:

"Oh, beautiful being, I would gladly exchange places with you this sad hour, but pardon you I cannot. It is the Czar's duty to see no one convicted without just cause, so is it the Czar's duty to see the law rigidly enforced."

Then after kissing her many times, he ordered her head laid upon the block, and a moment after signaled the headsman to do his bloody work.

It is true that during the forty-three years of his administration Peter the Great never pardoned a single convicted offender, and it was his pride to declare the fact.

Though desperately beaten on nearly every battle-field for nine years, and until a further continuance of the struggle appeared hopeless, still the Great Peter suc-

ceeded in inspiring his army with his own dauntless spirit. At length fortune changed in his favor, and soon hope blazed up all over the once despairing Empire. The battle of Pultova, which was fought under Imperial leadership by the flower of both armies, resulted in Peter's favor, and was so complete an overthrow of Swedish influence and power that it was the last blow struck on either side. Charles XII. was himself desperately wounded, his army almost annihilated, and he was ready to sue for peace at any price. A treaty followed soon after, which ceded to Russia nearly all that territory now known as Finland, but the Government of Finland has ever remained isolated from Russia, for the reason that it has a limited constitution and is a Dukedom.

At the conclusion of peace Peter renewed the building of St. Petersburg, intending that it should be the capital of the Empire. He soon removed from his little palace—which was called "palace" because it was the Royal residence—to a spot eighteen miles west of the city, where he built another palace, and called the place Peterhoff. There were two houses constructed for his residence, both of which are very small, one of them being beautifully situated on a bank of the Finland Gulf, and the other in a delightful wood, before which was made a large fish pond. He bestowed such attention on the grounds at Peterhoff that they are regarded as the most picturesque in all Europe.

He concentrated so much of his ambition on St. Petersburg, however, that notwithstanding the fact of its establishment on an extensive morass, he expended the means which have made it next to Paris in architectural beauty, with broad streets and numerous parks, graceful monuments, and the finest Imperial palace in the world. He fostered the arts and sciences, gave encouragement to

every commendable enterprise, and made Russia a power equal to any in Europe.

Generous in sustaining every scheme which he considered would advance the national interest, and genial in his intercourse with those he met in diplomatic or court relations, yet his stern determination and inflexible heart made him often appear like a man destitute of human feeling and wholly without mercy. He had but one son, who possessed many of the traits characteristic of the sire; this youth had an abnormally long head and a strange visage which foreboded dark purposes. When only fifteen years of age he became a disturbing factor in the Empire by attempting to incite a rebellion against his father; so persistent was the youth in fomenting discord that his father ordered him thrown into prison, but he was not so strictly confined as to prevent intercourse with many officials whom he tried to influence against the Czar. So incensed at length did Peter become that, alone, he repaired to the prison, and with his own hand struck a dagger into the heart of his recreant son.

The second greatest character in Russian history, as before mentioned, was Catharine II., who was a German princess brought to Russia under the following circumstances:

Elizabeth, youngest daughter of Peter the Great, was without issue, though upon the throne from 1741 until 1762. In order to retain the throne in the family, she adopted a grandson of Peter I., whom she raised at Court under Imperial tutelage. When the young Peter approached his adolescence Elizabeth grew anxious for him to fix his intentions upon some princess who might, as Empress, reflect credit upon himself and the nation, but Peter was so diffident that he had to be coerced into a courtship. To this end the Empress sent for four Ger-

man princesses all about the age of the youthful Peter, to visit her during the approaching winter. The girls were brought to Russia in a post-chaise, and upon their arrival they were met by the Empress, who observed a remarkable difference between Catharine, one of the quartette, and the other three princesses. This difference consisted in a bold, frank, careless air manifested by Catharine as she entered the Royal presence, whilst her three companions exhibited such modesty and awkward diffidence that Elizabeth declared, within half an hour after receiving them, that Catharine should become wife to her adopted Peter.

The two were brought together and their respective suits vicariously pleaded with such persistency that although Catharine could scarcely endure the Prince Imperial, yet she was induced to marry him. This union was a most unfortunate one, as will appear hereafter.

Upon the death of Elizabeth, Peter I. became Czar under the title of Peter III. He was a weak ruler and directly opposite in desposition to Catharine, whose ambition was as all-absorbing as that displayed by Peter the Great. After one year of contention Catharine took up her residence at Peterhoff, while Peter III. remained at the Winter Palace with his mistress, the Countess Stroganhoff. This woman gained such an influence over him that he decided to marry her. To accomplish his purpose he had first to get rid of Catharine, which he attempted to do by preparing charges against her of treason and inconstancy. Following these he issued an order for her arrest, which was to take place the morning following.

It was Catharine's good fortune to have a friend at Peter's Court who, learning of the secret arrangement to bring her to trial, which would have resulted in her ban-

ishment, drove quickly to Peterhoff and acquainted her fully of the conspiracy. Catharine was not a woman to quail or grow sick at heart over this discouraging news; but with a quick perception and the determination to dare and do, she called her waiting maid, whom she implicitly trusted, and ordering her sleigh to be quickly brought, she drove with all possible dispatch to St. Petersburg and drew up her foaming horses before the barracks of the Imperial Horse Guards. It was one o'clock in the morning when she awakened the chief officer, and with speech that characterized her as a puissant queen, she told him of the conspiracy and demanded his assistance. The officer was thus placed in a truly dangerous position, for his acts must now be treason either to the Emperor or Empress, for obedience to one would be treason to the other. In the moments of his indecision and while Catharine was haranguing the officers and men with words of burning eloquence, a young lieutenant named Potemkin drew his sword from its scabbard and holding it aloft declared his allegiance to the Empress and offered his services and life in her behalf. This spirit became at once contagious, and in an hour's time the Horse Guards, to a man, swore fidelity to her and promised to execute all her orders.

Catharine seized the advantage which was now clearly hers, and while Peter was reposing in the arms of his mistress, unconscious of betrayal, the strategic Queen burst in upon the Winter Palace with her faithful force, intending to summarily arrest and execute her faithless husband. But the Emperor was aroused in time to effect his escape down a private stairway and, half clothed, his identity was so concealed that he fled undetected to Cronstadt. Here he was comparatively safe, as there was no force in all Russia that could have successfully assaulted this the strongest in the Empire.

Catharine assumed control as Empress without incurring any opposition, and conducted the Government for a period of three months without holding any communication with the dethroned Emperor. She was not satisfied, however, with the apparent acquiescence in her rule, for there was a feeling of insecurity, occasioned by a dread of some conspiracy which might arise against her and restore the Emperor, so she concocted a diabolical plan for his assassination, the details of which show her to have been a cunning, but heartless woman.

Having thoroughly conceived her purposes, Catharine wrote a lengthy letter, filled with the most affectionate declarations, to the despondent Emperor, in which she reminded him of their early courtship, the love that he bore for her before the poisonous influences of imperialism and sovereignty had alienated him; she avowed her inexpressible love for him still, which, she claimed, was only realized when cruel circumstances had so strangely separated him from her; she also absolved him from censure for the part he had taken, throwing all the guilt upon those who had, through jealousy, influenced him to do that which she declared was foreign to his naturally pious and loving nature. She also pointed out the evil suffered by the nation by reason of a disgraceful act which had brought nothing but sorrow to them both. These specious pretenses were concluded by a cordial invitation which she extended him, announcing that, being so anxious for a reconciliation she would grieve herself to death if it were denied, she had arranged to give him a royal dinner at Peterhoff, at which would be present a special company of his friends to welcome him back again to his loving wife and the throne of Russia.

This letter, so skilful in its construction, completely captivated Peter, for being of a despondent nature he

only needed the effervescent spirit of such a communication to dissipate the gloom which had gathered so densely about him. His friends, however, thought they detected the signs of a conspiracy in the missive, because not a single sentence accorded with the nature of Catharine, whom they knew to be ambitious, despotic and unscrupulous. They therefore strongly advised him not to accept the invitation, but he could discover nothing in the communication beyond that which promised him a restoration to power.

He accordingly ordered his yacht and sailed across to Peterhoff, his heart exulting with proud expectations and without the slightest suspicion of the dreadful death that he was hastening to. Upon reaching Peterhoff he was astonished to find no preparations for his reception, but even this did not excite in him the least apprehension. Arriving at the Palace he was told that the Empress had arranged to meet him at the Ropscha Palace.

Still unsuspicious, he entered a carriage which was placed at his disposal, and drove to Ropcha, which is about twenty miles from Peterhoff, where he first became alarmed by failing to observe anything that indicated an expected visit from him. But he was now too far advanced into Catharine's territory to turn back, for flight could not have saved him. Entering the Palace he was met by an officer, who, with profound obeisance addressed him as "Your Majesty," and conducted him into the reception room where a score more of officers greeted him in a manner becoming his rank. Being seated he enquired for Catharine, and was told that Her Majesty was in the toilette room with her maids, but would appear presently.

In a short time dinner was announced, and he was invited to accompany the officers to the dining hall, where they assured him Catharine would appear at once.

Everything was of such strained and uncertain character that Peter's alarm momentarily increased until when he sat down at the table his face blanched with fright. Calling again for Catharine and receiving an unsatisfactory answer, Peter arose from the table and exclaimed:

ROPSCHA PALACE, WHERE PETER III. WAS STRANGLED.

"I perceive, gentlemen, that I have been grossly deceived, and that instead of inviting me to a reconciliation with the Empress, this is a scheme to assassinate me."

As these words were uttered Count Oraloff approached him suddenly from behind, and throwing a napkin around his neck exclaimed:

"Yes, and it shall be as painless as we can make it."

The Emperor had time then only to cry, "Shame! shame!" when the napkin was drawn so tightly that he soon died of strangulation

Catharine had but one child, a son, who was declared illegitimate, and when he ascended the throne as Paul I. a revolution was averted only by the most obsequious promises to pacify the people. He ruled for five years, but with such dissatisfaction that a conspiracy was organized against him in his own palace; the conspirators forced themselves into his private study, and presenting a letter of abdication demanded that he should sign it. This he refused, whereupon Count Parlen, assisted by six others, drew a napkin about his neck and strangled him to death in the same way in which his father was executed

The reign of Catharine II. was marked by the great progress Russia made, notwithstanding the wars she precipited which drew so heavily upon her treasury. She did more for St. Petersburg even than Peter the Great, some of her principal works being the construction of three canals which run through the city and connect the Volga with the Neva river, by which boats may run through from the Caspian to the Baltic sea. Her politic measures were no less important, for she confirmed the abolition of the secret state inquisition; she also educated seven thousand children, and among many other acts of public charity she established a foundling asylum at St. Petersburg, and also one at Moscow. These institutions are the largest of the kind in the world. The one at Moscow receives an average of one hundred foundlings every day, while the one in St. Petersburg receives half that number.

Her entire reign was distinguished for the successful wars she waged against Turkey, at one time pushing her arms so far that Constantinople would have been com-

pelled to capitulate, but for the intervention of other powers. Her efforts to annex Poland precipitated a great civil war which resulted, through the intrigues of Russia, Austria and Prussia, in an assault on Warsaw and the most dreadful massacre that the pen of history has perhaps ever recorded.

In 1784 Catharine gained complete possession of the Crimea and the adjacent islands; she then established the great fort of Sevastopol, which became such a prominent point of attack in the Crimean war of 1853-54-55.

Her private life was marked by the most demoralizing excesses, which she took no pains to conceal. She bestowed every honor within her gift upon Potemkin, the lieutenant of the Horse Guards who espoused her cause against Peter III., and her favors were not limited to offices of preferment. She had seven favorites who were her daily companions and counselors, and these are remembered in St. Petersburg by a large bronze statue of Catharine, around the pedestal of which are grouped smaller statues of the favored Septemviri.

Her ambition was abnormal, being irrepressible even in the last moments of her life. When conscious that death was at hand, with great effort she rose up so far as her strength would allow, but fell back with these last words:

"Bring me the crown, that I may feel it on my head once more before I die. The crown! the crown!" and whispering these words she expired.

CHAPTER IV.

THE third much distinguished historical character of Russia is Alexander II., whose tragic death, March 13, 1881, startled the world. While I have selected as strikingly great, in the Romanoff dynasty, only three rulers, I would have it understood that my estimation of these sovereigns is based entirely upon the civil policy which they pursued, and their influence in promoting the commerce and arts of Russia. There were greater warriors on the throne of Russia than Peter the Great, among whom I may mention Tamerlane, Ivan IV., surnamed the Terrible, and Vladimir the Great, but I have not attempted to outline a general history of Russia, as that task has been accomplished already by several writers whose works have become standard in the various civilized countries. My purpose in introducing Peter the Great, Catharine II. and Alexander II. as pre-eminently prominent sovereigns was to utilize their administrations as a specially appropriate prelude to the subject of Russia's internal revolution. Their several policies and tendencies serve to illustrate the mercurial and violent nature of the Russian people, as well as the burdens they have had to endure, and with the foregoing epitome of the two greatest administrations in Russia an intelligent comprehension of that which is to follow may be had.

When Alexander came to the throne there was everything to discourage him. His father had died under the most lamentable circumstances; the Crimean war failure had caused mutterings and a restlessness among the people which seemed to threaten disruption, if not revolution; there was an empty treasury gaping at a debt of

ALEXANDER II.

frightful proportions; and as the war with the Allied Powers had not yet terminated, he reached the throne in time to be held responsible for the downfall of Sevastopol.

Nicholas I. was a despot whose iron hand had crushed out every semblance of liberty, and the people were naturally distrustful of the son of such a man, but the first acts of Alexander II. was to reduce the public burdens and inaugurate social reforms of great consequence to the people. At the conclusion of peace he reduced his army to the lowest possible limits compatible with the safety of the Empire; he next established trial by jury, devised a code of laws for the restraint of the royal family, and so mitigated the censorship of the press that immediately literature was stimulated and with it followed a rapid progress in all the arts and sciences. But in making these reforms he met with a stubborn opposition from the *noblesse*, so that they finally became as laws observed only in the breach. An author writing at the time on the profession and practices of the administration observes:

"In the administration of justice we find on the one hand publicity and ample show of discussion during the proceedings, and in the jury-box; on the other a practice which removes inconvenient persons from the cognizance of a tribunal, and sends them 'administratively' to Siberia. On the one side abolition of corporal chastisement as a criminal and disciplinary punishment; on the other, incessant floggings in secret. On the one side a recognition of the principles of self-government in the provinces and towns; on the other, the impossibility of turning this to any practical use through fear of Governors, Ministers, Councillors, or Chiefs of Gendarmes. On the one side a strict demarcation of power among

the various authorities, and a distinct separation of judicial from administrative functions; on the other, an unbounded exercise of arbitrary power by higher police officials, who in their turn are ruled over by the 'Third Section,' whose supreme command overrides everything else."

Although the reforms sought to be established by Alexander were suggested by an honest intention to remedy many crying evils, instead of eradicating, or even ameliorating any of the vicious practices so long complained of, seem to have served no other purpose than that of creating an inveterate hostility to him personally, which culminated, after five unsuccessful attempts, in his assassination.

We are now brought to a period in Russian history where Nihilism had its beginning, for, strange enough, this bloody creature of a disordered if not frenzied conception had its birth in the very cradle of emancipation.

Communism was a disquieting, if not dangerous factor in Russia as early as 1825, when a band of conspirators attempted to substitute constitutional for despotic Government through the assassination of Alexander I., but there was a great dissimilarity in the two organizations, found in the fact that Communism of that time had a defin[illegible] policy and a formulated idea of the Government [illegible]oposed to establish, while Nihilism is exactly what the word implies, "nothing;" a determination to wreak vengeance without considering either the means or result.

Russian Communism in 1825 had its origin in a growing discontent with existing institutions and a desire to see them replaced by laws more in accordance with modern ideas. This disposition, which was first manifested among the nobles, grew out of that vast wave of thought

to which the French Revolution gave rise, and, to some extent, to the unsettling forces set free during the great struggle with Napoleon I.

The close of the life of Alexander I. was embittered by the reflection of how much he had done for his people and the ingratitude they had returned. From time to time he received mysterious messages containing warnings that his life and throne were in danger. His mind became so gloomy under these threatened calamities that he died of a broken heart at Togaurog.

An interregnum ensued, during which, while Nicholas was refusing to exclude his elder brother from the throne and while Constantine was undetermined whether or not to swear allegiance to his younger brother, the Communists gained strength and their plans coherency. The result was a military insurrection in December, 1825, which terminated in a dreadful carnage. The attack was made on the Winter Palace by about five thousand men, who gathered in the Alexander Square in broken ranks, and with such weapons as they could collect. The mob was met by a battery of heavy artillery, planted in front of the Ministry of Justice, one hundred yards from the Palace, which, with grape-shot, opened fire on the crowd until nearly three thousand of the revolutionists were mangled in instant death or left dying in a sea of blood.

This dreadful slaughter suppressed Communism until, upon the accession of Alexander II., Alexander Herzen organized a revolutionary committee and established a printing office in London, where Nihilistic literature was printed and used to inflame the passions of adventurers and those who were conscious of Russian oppression. This committee had its branches in Paris, Berlin and Geneva, but was making little progress when the Emperor declared, by act of emancipation February 19,

1861, the freedom of the Serfs. This was a blow at the Russain nobility which proved disastrous to their interests and led to evils far beyond those anticipated by the Emperor.

The history of Serfdom may be briefly told, and as it is essential to a correct understanding of the emancipation proclamation and its consequences, is herewith given:

The original settlers of Russia being from the east and south, the nomadic disposition which characterized them continued to be a feature of the Government, until measures were taken, at first of a mild, persuasive nature, to induce a permanent settlement of the people, in order that agriculture might be promoted. Incursions from neighboring tribes for purposes of forage and reprisal, followed by hordes who retaliated upon the invaders, became so general as to prevent any attempt to engage in productive industry, until in 1592 Boris Godunoff, of the Rurik dynasty, became convinced that there could be no progress or cohesion in his Empire unless the pernicious custom was abolished. He accordingly promulgated a peremptory decree, forbidding peasants from changing their residence or appearing off their communal estates without a permit from the Governor of their respective districts. All efforts to enforce this decree proved futile, because no adequate punishment was provided for its infraction.

Determined in his purpose, however, Godunoff had enacted and put into execution another law which gave the right to any nobleman—which was a wealthy class of landed estate owners, whose occupation was chiefly stock raising—to hold in bondage all the peasants employed by him, and also the further right of forcibly taking and owning as slaves any peasant whom he might

RUSSIA'S NAVY YARD.

find off the communal estate on which such peasant was recorded as a resident. This latter law gave the noble men absolute ownership of the serfs thus forced into bondage, with the right to dispose of them the same as other chattels. The law remained unchanged until during the reign of Nicholas I., when that sovereign issued another decree taking away from the noblemen the right of selling their serfs except as they might be disposed of with the estates of their masters.

So extensive did this system of slavery become that in the year 1858 it is computed there were 47,100,000 persons in servitude, more than one-half the entire population of European Russia. Of this number M. Rambaud estimates that 20,000,000 were Crown peasants, 4,700,000 were peasants attached to estates, which were the Appenages of the Crown, laboring in mines and factories belonging to the Crown; 21,000,000 belonged to private individuals and 1,400,000, were domestic servants.

The serfs of the Crown and of the Appenages might be considered as free men, subject to the payment of a rent, and bound only to perform certain defined obligations to the State, while they were permitted to enjoy a restricted local self-government. To emancipate these involved only an Imperial edict of manumission, which was done gradually by a series of ukases, the first of which bore date July, 1858.

The emancipation of those serfs belonging to private owners, however, was a task not so easily performed, for, as Rambaud observes, "the liberation of these 22,400,000 human beings was to constitute the most prodigious social revolution that has been accomplished since the French Revolution." Particularly was the task a difficult one, since the scheme provided for the liberation of the serfs under such conditions as left them in possession of

SERFS CELEBRATING "LIBERATION DAY," FEB. 19.

the estates they had cultivated, but imposed obligations upon them which may be summed up in the following:

1st. The peasants were to be invested with the privi leges of free cultivators.

2d. They were to have, under conditions expressed in the decree, the full enjoyment of their enclosure, and also of a portion of productive land sufficient to enable them by industry to discharge certain obligations to the State. This enjoyment might become absolute possession of the enclosure by purchase.

3d. The noblemen were to surrender to the peasants all the land actually occupied by them, a maximum and minimum being fixed for each commune—the serfs lived in communes in a manner which will be explained hereafter. The average allowance was nine acres of arable land to each male serf; the allotment differed greatly, however, in different districts, according to the character of the soil; in some rich localities as little as three acres were granted each serf, while in the most unproductive portions as much as twenty-five acres was the portion.

4. The Government obligated itself to organize a system of laws through which the serfs were to be enabled to discharge their obligations to the State.

5. The domestic servants were to be granted an unconditional freedom after serving their masters for the period of two years.

6. The owners of the land and serfs were to receive compensation, for the property thus yielded, by a money payment, which was based upon the rents they had received and the value of their serf labor, which was to be calculated at a yearly rental of six per cent; "so that, for every six roubles which the laborer had earned annually, he had to pay one hundred roubles to his

master as his capital value to become a free holder." Of this sum, twenty per cent. was advanced by the Government to the noblemen (owners) which was to be refunded by the freed peasants in installments extending over fifty-nine years. To secure this repayment, the Government imposed a tax on the commune, making the householders of each *Mir*, or village, individually responsible for the entire sum, charging on each commune a portion of the redemption dues and other imperial taxes proportionate to the number of males in the census list, which is revised and republished annually.*

This Imperial ukase of emancipation went into effect February 19, 1861, and immediately produced a violent feeling, which for a time threatened civil war. We, in America, who know the effect of President Lincoln's manumission proclamation, can readily understand the rebellious spirit which must have animated the Russian noblemen, for though there was a compensation fixed by the Government, by which the serf owners were to receive a money consideration, yet the scheme of payment was of such a character as to be practically valueless to the noblemen. It was a virtual confiscation of both their lands and serfs.

Under the system of serfdom there developed a *noblesse* class of aristocracy, who practiced the most extravagant indulgences, maintaining fine country seats in France, Switzerland and Bavaria, dressing in a garb of richest splendor when in Russia, keeping scores of mistresses, and breathing nothing but the atmosphere of profligacy.

They not only derived an income from their pastoral estates, but encouraged their more ambitious slaves to

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* Russia, Past and Present, by H. M. Chester.

engage in business in the cities. Thousands of serfs of quick intelligence were glad to pay their masters the sum

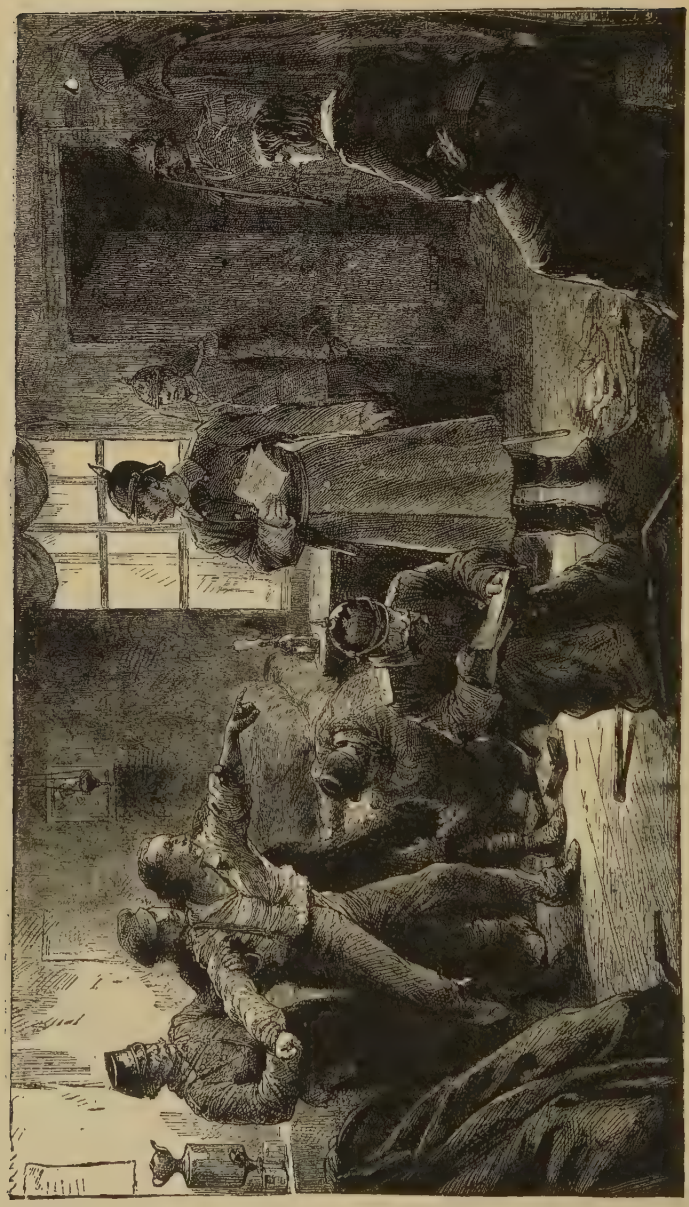
A RUSSIAN NOBLE LADY OF THE XVITH CENTURY.

of one thousand roubles annually for what they could earn in commercial undertakings. But there are hun-

dreds of instances in which greedy masters compelled their serfs, who had prospered in business, to pay them ten times the amount they had thus agreed to accept. There was a law which made noblemen amenable to contracts thus entered into with their serfs, but it was rendered inoperative by the right of the owner, at the expiration of such time as he had agreed to grant freedom to his slave, to compel his serf to abandon business and return to the commune.

Suddenly stripped of their wealth, and entirely unaccustomed to any employment, the noblemen were left in a sorry condition by the Imperial ukase of 1861. Being from almost time immemorial used to princely revenues, and with a power which exalted their pride to the very limit of aggrandizement, the aristocratic lords were precipitated, in a day, to the level of their minions, and we are not surprised to learn that they felt bitter toward the Government. This intense hatred soon developed into an active opposition, which culminated in Nihilism. The noblemen were educated, and their former position, an aroma of which still clings to them, gave them that influence among the ignorant classes which they have wielded so potentially ever since. Keeping behind the scenes themselves, they have used those whom flattering speech and promises of an Utopia could beguile, to commit revolutionary acts. The students, who are almost continually committing some overt act against the Government, are the sons of those old noblemen who have transmitted their grievances and who look to the second generation for a reclaimation of their rights.

There is a vast difference between Communism and Nihilsm in Russia, the latter being far the more radical and aggressive, with less direction of purpose. During the early years of Alexander I., and following quickly upon



ARREST OF A REVOLUTIONARY STUDENT.

the overthrow of Napoleon, Russia, in common with all Europe, shouted herself hoarse in an enthusiasm for nationality. At this time the "Slavophils" were the national reactionists, with many discordant elements which prevented homogeniety among them.

During the reign of Nicholas the existence of even a shadowy form of liberalism was rendered impossible by the energetic action of thousands of secret police, though at Moscow there were individual liberalists, no two being in concert, however, so that of an organization there was not the least semblance. But toward the close of Nicholas' reign a group of students in the University of Moscow began a discussion with the view of securing refuge from the absolutism which hedged them about in almost helpless conscription of thought and action. This idea was no doubt created by a study of Hegel's and Schelling's philosophy, particularly the former, which excited such an interest among the students that there developed a mania for his works to the neglect of all other studies.

There were two parties among these incipient philosophers, one of which was under the leadership of Alexander Herzen, who inclined to French Socialism, while the other branch recognized as their champions Aksakof, Kiriecvskis and Samarin, who clung tenaciously to the Hegelian school until they progressed into Romanticists. Their ideas finally crystalized around the belief that Western Europe was in a vortex of ruin, while Russia alone remained in that state of youth and vigor as gave promise, through the adoption of measures they advovocated, of reaching the highest plane in science, art and ultured civilization.

To better accomplish their purpose, these fanatical students adopted the garb of the peasantry, wearing their

shirts over their trowsers and going about in sleeveless jackets to the great astonishment of Moscow. This move was to obtain the favor of a major class as well also as to manifest their sincerity.

Hegel's philosophy of history taught that a new race, to have dominion over the world, must be the messengers of new ideas and principles; the discovery, therefore, of the system of Russian Communism by Baron Von Hoxthansen in 1842, was accepted by the Slavophils as a revelation of the idea and principle upon which was to be established the Pan-Sclavonic nation of the future. This firmly imbedded belief became, as it were, the very constitution of Communism, and was the basis upon which Herzen builded his Socialism. Associated with the democratic tendency of the Slavophils to regenerate the nation through the common people, was their fidelity to the Church, which it was positively believed had protected them from Protestant infidelity and Papal oppression.

This school of enthusiasts, though small in numbers for several years, had no little influence, and by the manifestation of almost unexampled persistency they at length began to grow in numbers with great rapidity, while with their growth they became more pronounced in a developing sympathy with extreme radicalism.

In 1860 the celebrated novelist, Ivan Tourguenief, in a popular story, applied the term "Nihilists" to the Hegelian Slavophils, whom he accused of a desire to destroy everything. But the word "Nihilism" was used as a synonym for scepticism many years before by Roycercollard and Victor Hugo. Alexander Herzen has been credited with being the founder of Nihilism, but this is a mistake, the real part he acted being that of an Evangelist of Nihilistic doctrines in Russia. Associated with Herzen were Tshernikevski and Bakunin, the latter

of whom succeeded Herzen in the editorship of the famous *Kolokol*. Under Herzen this organ advocated reforms and the introduction of Socialism with a moderation, however, in all its articles which made it respected by all parties, but under Bakunin it changed from a radical into a revolutionary journal and in a fiery, unreasonable manner advocated the subversion of both Church and State, even at the expense of chaos. The violent manner in which Bakunin agitated his declared Nihilistic purpose may be better judged by the following extracts from a manifesto, which he issued in 1868 on behalf of an organization calling itself the "*Alliance Internationale de la Democratic Socialiste*," of which he was the head:

"Brethren, I come to announce unto you a new gospel, which must penetrate to the very ends of the world. * * The old world must be destroyed and replaced by a new one. * * * The *Lie* must be stamped out, and give way to Truth. * * * The first lie is *God;* the second lie is *Right*, * * * and when you have freed your minds from the fear of a *God*, and from that childish respect for the fiction of *Right*, then all the remaining chains that bind you, and which are called science, civilization, property, marriage, morality, and justice, will snap asunder like threads. * * * Let your own happiness be your only law. * * * Our first work must be destruction and annihilation of everything as it now exists; you must accustom yourselves to destroy everything, the good with the bad; for if but an atom of this old world remains, the new will never be created."

It is unfortunate that some zealous pupil of the fanatical agitator did not accept this advice and begin the work of destruction, for the upbuilding of a new world, by putting a quietus on Bakunin.

Another writer of seditious pamphlets in Russia makes use of this language:

"Down with instruction and science; we have had enough of it for a thousand years. The thirst for it is an aristocratic one which, like the desire for conjugal felicity, engenders a love of wealth. We must extirpate this taste, and develop in its place drunkenness, backbiting, and a corruption till now unknown. All geniuses must be stifled in their cradles. So we shall arrive at a perfect equality."

It is difficult to find a reason why such insane declarations find favor among any people, much less among the Nihilist teachers, who belong to the more intelligent and educated class. Yet according to the declarations made by Solovieff, the Emperor's would-be assassin, in his confession, more than three-fourths of all the Nihilists with whom he was connected were formerly students of the universities.

Signor Arnando, who has made a special study of Nihilism, and who writes so intelligently on the subject, says: "The association of so many Russian youths of culture with doctrines so utterly at variance with common sense and humanity, may be explained in three ways. First, the Russians understand science easily, and like the study of it, provided it is all prepared for them by others. This accounts for the fact that Russia has produced very little original talent. Secondly, the rising generation shows a great tendency toward idleness, and a great liking for conversations and discussions. It has two defects: It is too easily excited and never thoroughly investigates a subject. The Russian youths are intelligent, and appropriate with extraordinary promptitude all that comes to them from abroad, but they take it as it comes and build their own theories upon it. Thirdly, as Professor

Fleury has remarked, all the young men and women that frequent the universities show the same inaptitude for reasoning and abstract ideas; their minds seize and retain particulars and details, but with difficulty surmount the conception of generality and collectiveness."

CHAPTER V.

TROUBLE grew apace in Russia after the liberation of the serfs, in which even the freedmen were inclined against their sovereign. They began to grumble because the Czar had not given them their freedom without imposing a burden which it would require years of hard labor for them to remove.

In 1863 Poland, that had dreamed of an untrammelled autonomy, at least since 1815, became the scene of a bloody insurrection, while all over Russia blazed up incendiary fires, and St. Petersburg was threatened with destruction. It was a gloomy period, but Alexander did not exhibit any other disposition than that of determination. He argued that if a people will not be satisfied with the perfecting of reforms as rapidly as the condition of affairs would permit, the safest policy to pursue was coercion. Accordingly the insurrection in Poland was put down by a liberal, if not unmerciful, use of ball and steel. He now began to receive mysterious warnings that his life was in danger, but reckoning these as the idle fancies or ulterior designs of zealots, he gave no heed or care to such communications, until April 16, 1866, a young Pole named Karakozoff, who was employed by the revolutionary committee, made an attempt upon the Emperor's life. It was on Sunday afternoon, when the

Czar was about to take his customary walk in the Summer Garden. A large crowd had collected near the gates fronting the quay on the Neva to witness his Majesty's departure. At the moment he was crossing the pavement to enter his sledge, a man stepped hurriedly forward from the crowd and presenting a pistol, which he had drawn from beneath a large cloak, fired at the Emperor. Fortunately for his Majesty a peasant happened to be standing very near the assassin and having observed something suspicious in the movements of the criminal, jumped forward in time to knock the pistol up and thus save the Emperor's life, when immediately the man was arrested. The peasant who had saved the Czar's life was named Kamissaroff, and in gratitude for his escape the Emperor granted a liberal annuity to the fortunate peasant, besides creating him a noble.

As an example of the number of superstitious stories that were universally accepted by the common people as true, and were gravely published in the Russian papers as authentic facts, the following may be quoted:

At three o'clock on the day when the attempt was made, the people of Rappenberg, a small town in the Government of Riazan, which was the native place of Kamissaroff, were startled by the detonating peals of the alarm bell. On rushing to the church to learn the cause, the people were greatly terrified to perceive that there was no one in the belfry; that the rope still hung unmolested on a hook in the wall, and that the bell had rung of itself. Three days later the St. Petersburg papers reached Rappenberg, containing an account of the attempt on the Emperor's life, when instantly the people were satisfied why the mysterious warning had been given.

It was only natural that this first attempt on the life of

the Czar, whose reign had been consistently marked by a long series of popular reforms, should produce throughout the Empire a feeling of intense indignation, but at the time it was hoped that Karakozoff's crime was nothing more than the rash work of a small and not very powerful revolutionary party in Poland. All such hopes, however, were soon dissipated, and from the facts brought out at the trial it became evident that the Nihilists were already a strong and dangerous organization, with a code of laws and disciplined forces, as will hereafter be explained.

Karakozoff was brought to trial, found guilty and condemned to be hanged, but the sentence of death was commuted by the Emperor to transportation to Siberia for life.

The following year, 1867, another attempt to assassinate the Czar was made while his majesty was driving through the streets of Paris, with his two sons and the Emperor, Napoleon III. This second attack was also made by a Pole, named Berezovsky, who fired at the Emperor, but happily with imperfect aim. No further overt act of the Nihilists was committed until in 1870, when a party of students were arrested for incendiary speeches and the publication of a paper filled with revolutionary articles intending to incite the people against the Czar. Among the sixteen that were arrested at this time was one named Sergius Netschaief, who disclosed the furious zeal with which Russian students of the advanced school embrace the wildest doctrines of Socialism. In addition to this he also described the Nihilist organization, and as these statements have been frequently verified by other Nihilists who turned informers after their arrest, they may be accepted as true.

The organization is divided into groups of members,

each group having either five, ten or fifteen members who are under the authority of a chief, who alone is in immediate communication with the commander of twenty groups. These commanders hold intercourse with the executive committee, but only through a delegate. The executive committee forms the center of the Nihilist party and serves to the maintenance of the most strict and secret discipline. The slightest act of treachery or disobedience to its orders is punished by death. Many bodies of murdered men have been discovered in the cities or highways of Russia, a small dagger piercing the corpse, to which a scroll was attached bearing the significant inscription, "Death for Treachery."

Recruiting the ranks is done in this manner: There are recruiting officers whose duty it is to search out persons whom it is desirable to have in the organization, and this is done in the following way: A man of apparent intelligence but of evident poverty, of whom there are thousands in every part of Russia, is, for instance, seen haunting some park or public place for want of occupation. The recruiting officer watches him from day to day until satisfied that the man is in sore need, when he casually approaches him and engages at first in a general conversation. An acquaintance is thus formed, and familiarity soon draws from the man an admission of his poverty and a desire to engage in anything that promises even such compensation as would afford him a livelihood. The officer suddenly remembers that he has a friend who is desirous of engaging a confidential agent, and proffers an introduction and recommendation. The poor fellow is, of course, elated at the prospect of securing employment and is punctual in keeping the appointment, which is arranged for. He is told by the third person that a vacancy exists, who offers the position with a salary of one

or two hundred roubles per month to the happy expectant, who is immediately engaged. The poor man is required to report from day to day at the headquarters of his employer, but has nothing in particular to do for perhaps two or three months. He is gradually prepared in the meantime for serious service by prejudicing his mind against the Government and in favor of the Nihilists, who are represented as a band of patriots whose aims are all for the eradication of evils which have long oppressed the people. Thus, without acquainting him with the duties he is expected to perform, the person controlling his services at length fortifies him for the obligation which he is soon after compelled to take. When these preparations are completed the man may be called on to assist in laying a dynamite mine, lighting an incendiary fire, or to commit murder. If he rebels at such orders he is told of his engagement and that his services belong to the executive committee of Nihilists who will hold him to a serious accountability. In other words, there is the alternative of death or obedience, for he is now known to the committee without in turn knowing the members, and it is only in rare instances that he will incur the danger which he is soon convinced will surely follow disobedience.

In this way hundreds of recruits are made in addition to the large number who volunteer their services. The expenses of this bloody organization are defrayed out of a general fund which is created by subscriptions raised by committees in foreign countries, particularly in Switzerland, France and England, and also by contributions from noblemen, whose influence and purses are almost universally placed at the disposal of the revolutionary party.

CHAPTER VI.

THE war with Turkey, declared on April 12, 1877, as might be expected, gave fresh life and energy to the cause of Nihilism, which had for its object the securing of liberty at home. This war was ostensibly waged for the protection of Christians who were living under Moslem rule. When peace was concluded and a Representative Chamber was opened in Bulgaria, Russia was the only European country that did not enjoy a constitutional Government more or less developed. The action of the Czar in declaring the freedom of Bulgaria and granting special privileges and autonomy to that country, while refusing like privileges to his own people, inflamed the Nihilists anew and greatly strengthened their organization.

For a while the Nihilist leaders believed that the end they had in view could be attained by striking a mortal blow at officialism, and this is proved by the fact that—not counting the attempt made at Paris by the Polish advocate Berezovsky—an interval of no less than thirteen years elapsed between the attempt made on the Emperor's life by Karakozoff and that made by Solovieff in 1879. In that interval General Trepoff, then Police Master of St. Petersburg, was severely wounded by Vera Zassulitch; General Mezentrieff, Chief of the Secret Police Department, was mortally wounded; and General Drenteln, his successor, was shot at. Of all that have within the last thirty years occupied the high post of Police Master of St. Petersburg, General Trepoff, without doubt, was the most energetic and most zealous. But like most comparatively irresponsible officials, he was frequently apt to take the law into his own hands, and dur-

THE CZAR DECLARING THE FREEDOM OF BULGARIA.

ing his tenure of power succeeded in amassing an enormous fortune. Thus, once when on a visit of inspection at the Fortress, one of the political prisoners, a certain Bogolouboff, not having saluted him—though it was later most clearly proved that he had done so—had his cap knocked off by the irate General and was ordered to be whipped, a sentence which, though manifestly in violation of all Russian law, was executed within twenty-four hours. The whipping, somehow, in spite of all efforts to have the affair hushed up, got public, and more than one paper even ventured to expose the illegal nature of the punishment. Vera Zassulitch, who had not long quitted one of the Government educational institutes, and who, as was alleged, had been on intimate relations with Bogolouboff, heard of the humiliation to which he had been subjected and determined to revenge him. For this purpose she came up to St. Petersburg from her country home in the Government of Yaroslaff, and presenting herself at the Police Master's official residence on one of his public reception days, whilst pretending to give a petition into his hands, drew forth a pistol from under her coat, and wounded the General so severely that his life for several days was despaired of, and he was compelled to retire finally from all public duties. The woman was arrested, and after long preliminary examinations was brought to trial. There was no doubt of her guilt, nor did she in any way attempt to deny it; but on the contrary gave to the court a full and precise account of the reasons that had prompted her to commit the crime. The effect of her defence was so great that the jury, after a short deliberation, brought in a verdict of not guilty. The Litenaya, a wide street in which the court where she was tried is situated, was thronged with a crowd of people anxiously awaiting the result, and when the fact

of her acquittal became known, the verdict was received with the most uproarious applause, and a serious collision took place between the people and the police, in the course of which several persons were killed, but Vera was rushed away by the sympathizing mob and concealed in a neighboring house. What is most remarkable, however, is that the metropolis press, without a single exception, warmly approved of her acquittal, one paper declaring the verdict to be "the voice of God;" and the *Moscow Gazatte*, the avowed organ of the Retrogradists, was singular in its condemnation of what it declared to be "a gross miscarriage of injustice."

A resident of St. Petersburg, who was present at the trial of Vera Zassulitch, and who was familiar with her life, gave me the following history of the woman: She was the daughter of a Russian officer in high rank, and at the time of committing the crime was twenty-eight years of age. She was a well educated and attractive lady, but so thoroughly imbued with revolutionary doctrines that she sacrificed all other interests for the cause of Nihilism, though it is not known that she contributed anything more dangerous than her influence; notwithstanding this, for more than eleven years preceding her attack upon Gen. Trepoff, she endured continual persecutions at the hands of the police, and it is to the sympathy universally evoked by the account of her sufferings that she mainly owed her acquittal from the terrible crime of which she was manifestly guilty, and that the great populur enthusiasm with which the verdict was received in Russia is due. At the age of seventeen, while trying to support herself as a bookbinder at St. Petersburg, she was arrested, owing to being the intimate schoolfriend of a young lady named Netchaieff, whose brother had just been implicated in some conspiracy at Moscow.

According to some accounts, Vera Zassulitch acted as a species of go-between and letter-carrier; but this is not confirmed, and, be her offence what it might, she was closely imprisoned for two years without the slightest shadow of a trial. A few days after her release, moreover, she was again arrested for no ostensible reason, and carried off this time to Eastern Russia, and might

VERA ZASSULITCH.

have perished with cold on the journey had not a kind gendarme lent her his cloak. She remained at Krestsi, in the province of Novgorod, under police supervision for two more years, and in 1871 was allowed to go to Tver to live with a brother-in-law, also a political exile. The latter, however, getting into trouble, owing to the

dissemination of prohibited books, Vera Zassulitch was once more arrested and brought to St. Petersburg. In 1873 she was transferred to Kharkoff, and in 1875 was at last liberated. From that time she appears to have lived in retirement until July, 1876, when her feelings were excited by the details of the cruel treatment of a political prisoner named Bogoluboff, who had been flogged by order of General Trepoff, the Prefect of Police at St. Petersburg, for some act of insubordination, but mainly because he had neglected to take off his cap on meeting that official for a second time in the prison precincts. As Vera Zassulitch well knew the hardships of prison life, and the tyranny of the officials, this story made an intense impression on her mind, and, after waiting some time to see if any official notice would be given to the affair, she determined to take the matter in hand herself, and, in her own words, "At the price of my own ruin to draw public attention to the affair, and prove that a human being may not be insulted in that way with impunity. It is a terrible thing to raise one's hand against a fellow creature, but I could find no other means. . . . It was all the same to me whether I killed or wounded the Prefect, and when I fired at him I did not aim at any particular place." To be brief, Vera Zassulitch sought an interview with General Trepoff in his reception room, and then and there shot him in the side with a revolver. For this she was brought to trial early in the month, the jury before whom she appeared being half composed of Government officials, the remainder being formed of persons in good position. The result was a verdict of "Not Guilty," a decision which was greeted with tremendous enthusiasm by an audience composed of some 600 persons, the applause being taken up by the crowd outside. On her appearance a perfect tumult en-

sued, and numerous arrests were made by the police, several of the rioters being shot. Had she not escaped, through the aid of friends who had a closed carriage in waiting, expecting her acquittal, Vera Zassulitch would no doubt have been re-arrested and tried before a military Court Martial, in which event she would have been convicted and executed. But on the other hand, so great was the popular sympathy for her that had the verdict of the jury been "Guilty," no one who is acquainted with the intense feeling manifested in her interest can for a moment doubt that the mob would have rushed into the court-room and torn to pieces not only the jurors but also the judges and prosecutors. She is supposed to be in Switzerland, under protection of an assumed name and the revolutionary party, but others stoutly maintain that she was captured and secretly put to death.

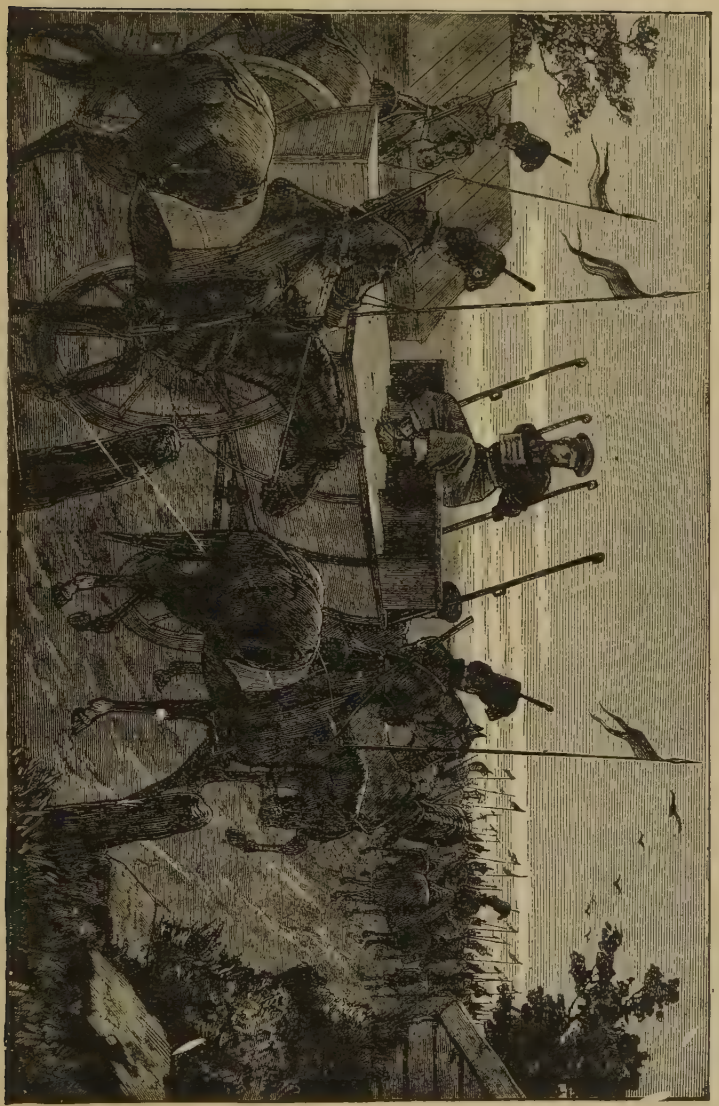
Later events have proved that the acquittal of Zassulitch, even more than the clemency shown to Karakozoff, was a mistake. The Nihilists only became bolder in their operations than they had shown themselves to be before. The attack on Mezentrieff soon followed. In spite of the hateful office which he held, the high character he bore had long won for him general and ungrudged esteem. The plot against him was most cautiously planned weeks before it was carried into execution A thorough bred horse and a well furnished droshky were hired, and for some mornings were regularly to be seen standing at the corner of Michel Square and the Italianskaya street, which the General invariably passed while taking his usual early morning walk. On a morning of June, 1877, as was afterward proved, the three or four droshkies that happened to be in the street waiting to be hired were engaged by persons privy to the plot, so that any attempt to arrest them could be rendered, if not impossible, at

least very difficult. As the General, in company with M. Makaroff, his aid-de-camp, approached the corner, a man extremely well dressed came quickly up as if intending to speak to him, and with a dagger stabbed him twice. The blows were so instantaneously given that M. Makaroff, who just then had fallen a few steps behind, had no time to interfere, the assassins having leaped into the drosnky that was waiting and drove off down the Sadovaya street and across the Nevski at a furious rate. It is true that a soldier, who had seen the whole affair, pursued the criminals for some little distance, but they were soon out of sight, nor were the real murderers arrested till after the terrible assassination of March 13, 1881. In the meantime, M. Makaroff hurried up to the General and raising him up with the assistance of those who had run to the spot in answer to his cries for help, asked him how he felt: "I am dying," was the reply, and when conveyed home the doctors who were summoned declared that there was no hope of recovery. He, however, lingered in great agony till about five o'clock in the afternoon. The crime, from its daringness and from the well arranged skill with which it was carried out, naturally caused a great sensation, and the question, what measures should be taken for the prevention of such crimes in the future, was anxiously debated by the Imperial Ministers in council.

It would appear that no decision was immediately come to. But before long a fresh and all but successful attempt on the life of the Emperor convinced those in authority that in the war they had to wage with the party of Terrorism there could no longer be any dallying, but that the sternest measures of repression must be adopted. On April 14, 1879, the Emperor was taking his usual early stroll round the Winter Palace, when on com-

ing near to that part of the building which adjoins the Hermitage on the Millionaya side, he met an individual who stopped as if to salute him, but drawing out a six barreled pistol, fired deliberately three times at the Emperor, none of which, however, took effect. The would-be assassin was at once seized by the police and bystanders, though not before he had made a most desperate resistance, and had shot one of the crowd. As soon as he was secured he was seized with fainting, and the fact that poison was found under his finger-nails and about him led to a suspicion that he had poisoned himself. Emetics were at once administered, and he recovered. On being questioned the prisoner stated that his name was Ivan Solovieff, and that he was employed in a provincial branch of the Ministry of Finance. Considerable anxiety was excited by the curious coincidence that for three days before the attempt placards had been posted on the walls of St. Petersburg, from the Secret Executive Committee, and addressed to "Mr. Alexander Nicolaievitch," and declaring that the invisible advocates of the people had set themselves to clear out the Augean stable of despotism, but that neither the Czar nor any member of the dynasty had been threatened. After declaring against the army, "a cruel and insatiable army of thieves," the tribunals, "a mockery of justice," and the generals, "so many satraps," the document concluded, "Think, Alexander Nicolaievitch, where this must all lead. You go directly to perdition, and therefore we spare your life."

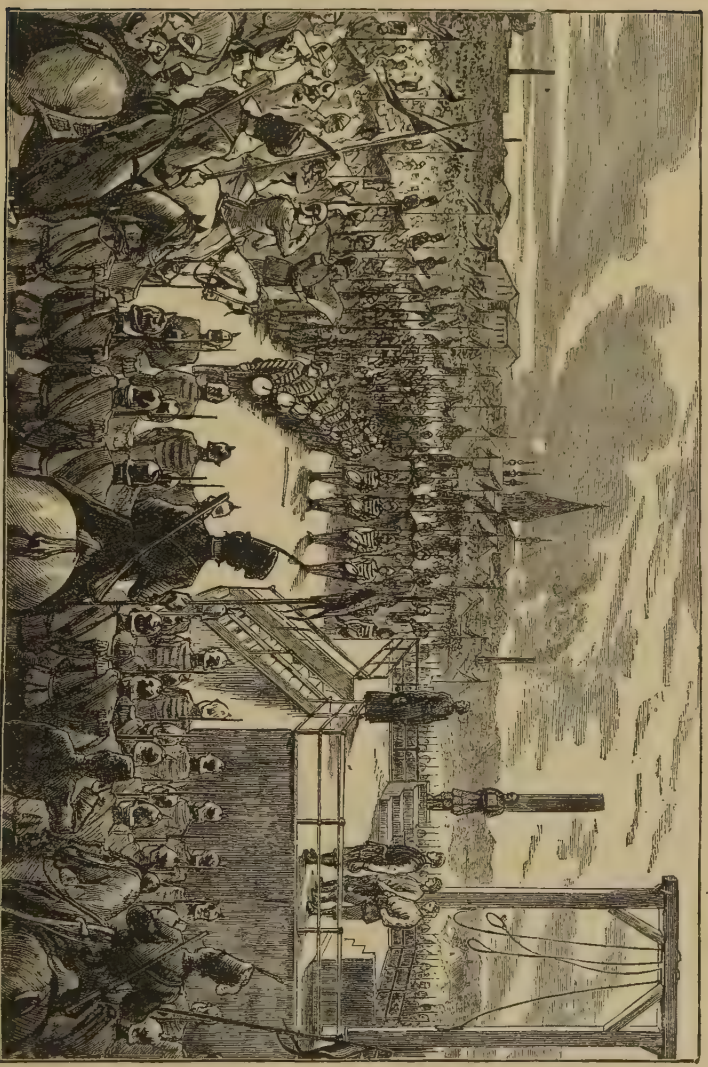
It would seem that the Emperor's suspicions had been excited by something that struck him in Solovieff's gait and manners, and that he had furtively made a signal to a soldier who was on guard close by, but that the latter, failing to understand the Emperor's meaning, only came up after the assassin had fired a third time. Although



CONDUCTING SOLOVIEFF TO THE PLACE OF EXECUTION.

the balls missed, the escape of the Emperor may be almost regarded as miraculous, and was due to the fortunate circumstance that the Czar, having observed something suspicious in Solovieff, almost before the first shot was fired, hurried forward in a zigzag direction, and turned under the nearest gateway. That same day a Council of Ministers was held under the immediate presidency of the Emperor, and it was decided to declare St. Pétersburg, Moscow, Kieff, Odessa, and other large cities of the Empire in a state of siege, and to appoint military Governors, with all but unlimited powers, over provinces of which these cities were the capitals. Thus General Guerko, who had won to himself no little renown in the march across the Balkans during the Turkish campaign, was made military Governor of St. Petersburg.

Solovieff was soon brought to trial and convicted, and on June 9th his execution took place publicly in a field near the Smolensk Cemetery at St. Petersburg. At an early hour crowds had collected round the scaffold, and when the condemned man arrived it is estimated that fully 6,000 spectators were present. Soon after 9 o'clock the authorities made their way to the place of execution. The scaffold was a plain wooden structure, painted black, and surrounded by an iron rail; outside this rail was a strong guard of both infantry and cavalry. At a quarter to ten the cart arrived in which Solovieff was seated firmly bound. He was dressed in the black coat, white trousers and cap usually worn by criminals of the higher class, in addition to which a large black label was hung round his neck, on which were the words, "State Criminal." He was unbound, and, having ascended the steps which led to the scaffold, with undaunted firmness, stood calmly regarding the crowd while the sentence was once more read to him. The newspaper reporters alone



EXECUTION OF SOLOVIEFF.

seemed to attract his attention. The priest then stepped up to him, but his offers of consolation were quietly and politely refused. The hangman then placed the white shirt and cap on the unfortunate man, and exactly at ten o'clock, amid the noise made by a band of drummers selected from the different regiments, the board was dragged away, and after a brief struggle Solovieff ceased to exist. The body in half-an-hour's time was removed by a strong escort of Cossacks to the place of burial.

The futility of all repressive measures was, however, made evident by subsequent events. The work of the terrorists was not interrupted for a single day, as we now know from the confessions subsequently made by one of their agents, a certain Goldenberg, during his imprisonment in the Fortress. Many of the stories concerning their activity are mere fictions, but the following has been vouched for on the best authority: One day General Drenteln, the successor of Meventrieff, found on the table in his office a threatening letter, and when he had read it, he laughingly turned to his private adjutant, the only official then in the room, with the remark: "They might as well write their letters on clean paper." The next morning another letter was discovered on the same spot, apologizing for the "unseemly appearance of the letter of yesterday," and expressing a hope that the present one would meet with the General's approval. Three years later, after the arrest of Rousakoff and the other criminals concerned in the assassination of the Emperor, proofs were forthcoming of the actual complicity in the proceedings of the Nihilists of more than one trusted official in the Secret Police Department. But, as I have said, the party of terror all this time continued their work. According to the statement made by Fhaboff at the great State Trial in March, 1882, the central committee decided

in August, 1879, to make a mine under the railroad from Krusk to Moscow, about 17 versts from the latter city, the mine to be blown up when the train should pass with the Emperor and his suite on their return from Livadia in the Crimea. A small house was hired near the railway, and an underearth passage was dug from the house up to the right-hand rail, the work being carried on with the greatest circumspection. It is strange and at the same time shows how ineffective Russian police administration is, that a work of such dimensions and requiring a long period of time for its execution, could have been carried out without exciting the suspicions of the police; the more so as it had been noticed that carts and wagons containing packages more or less heavy were frequently of an evening driven into the courtyard and there unloaded. The Imperial authorities, it is true, wisely adopted the most stringent methods of precaution. Thus not only one or two pilot trains were sent along the whole line, but the train in which the Emperor was traveling was made to run along the left instead of the right track. The explosion, which took place on the evening of Dec. 1, 1879, proved to be extremely violent. It tore up the ground for a considerable distance, destroyed several of the carriages, and severely wounded four or five persons. But, of course, it did not touch the Emperor, who had already passed half an hour previously in another train. When the place was searched, it was discovered that the criminals, the principal ones being Fliaboff and his mistress, must at the moment the connecting wire was fired have escaped through the back door of the house, and availing themselves of the dark night easily succeeded in escaping. The house was found to be furnished in such a manner as to perfectly disarm all suspicion. On the walls were hung portraits of the reigning Emperor and Empress as well as of the crown

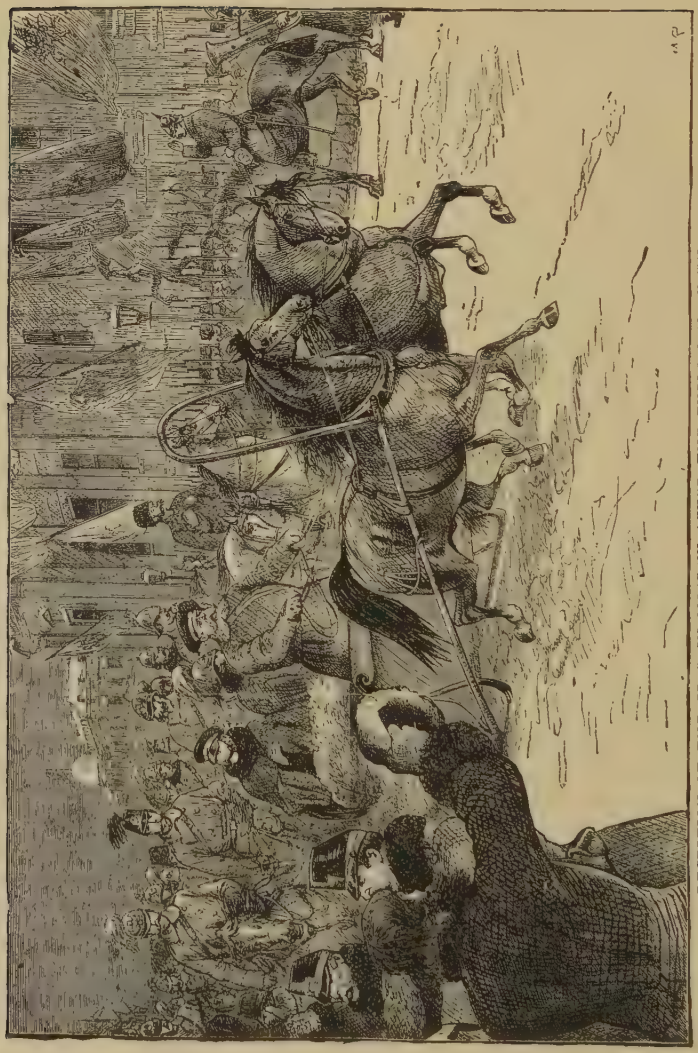
prince and princess, whilst a lamp was burning before the holy image of St. Nicholas in the corner of the room fronting the door. Behind the sofa the lower part of the wall close to the floor had been removed, from which point the

SHRINE IN GREEK CHAPEL, ST. PETERSBURG, RUSSIA.

excavation had been made. The greatest indignation was excited throughout Russia by the news of the attempt, and the most enthusiastic popular greeting accorded to the

Czar, who in his speech to the Moscow authorities alluded to his escape with devout thankfulness, but added: "The Revolutionary spirit must be exterminated, and I therefore turn to you and all well-thinking men for help in eradicating the evil, which has taken deep root." Curiously enough, this dastardly outrage occurred after a special act of clemency. At a trial of Socialists which took place at St. Petersburg, one young man, Mirsky, who attempted to assassinate General Drenteln, being condemned to death, was subsequently reprieved; while another, named Karkoff, had his sentence remitted from hard labor in the Siberian mines to ten years' imprisonment in a fortress.

Though numerous arrests were made, no real clue was discovered, and the true history of the attempt became known only after the death of the late Emperor. Nor were the terrorists discouraged by their repeated failures. Several of the leaders of the movement, among others the notorious Hartmann, arrived in Russia from abroad; the services of experts well versed in the preparation of dynamite explosions, as for example, Kiebalchitch, were secured, and Fliaboff had placed under his immediate orders forty-seven men who were pledged to obey him implicitly and to carry out blindly his instructions whatever they might be. It was now resolved to strike a mortal blow, not only at the Emperor but at the whole Imperial Family, and the newly formed scheme for its atrocious boldness can only be compared with the famous Gunpowder Plot in England. It was determined to blow up that part of the Winter Palace in which the rooms of the Emperor are situated, the explosion to take place directly under the large dining saloon, and to be fired at a time when the Emperor, his family and guests were already seated at the table. Wild as the attempt may appear, the preparations for its execution were carried on with



RECEPTION OF THE CZAR IN MOSCOW AFTER THE EXPLOSION OF THE MINE.

greater success than many might suppose to be possible, owing to the habitual laxity with which the officials whose special charge it was to guard the palace, performed their duties. In the course of subsequent investigations it came out that more than one hundred and fifty persons, supposed to be connected with the lackeys and servants of the palace, had for years been living in the building unprovided with any kind of passport and free from all surveillance. Equally lax was the watch kept over the numerous workmen almost constantly employed in repairing one or another portion of the palace. Even to the present day it is not positively known who placed the infernal machine in the vault where some carpenters and bricklayers were engaged working. Against those arrested no sufficient evidence could be brought. They were evidently mere decoys, and the real criminal, the chief carpenter, succeeded in escaping. On February 17, 1880, a dinner party took place at the palace, the principal guests being the Prince of Bulgaria and the Duchess of Edinburgh. The dinner was fixed for six o'clock, but the Emperor remained in his private room a few minutes, not more than five, talking with the Prince, and to this unintended delay must be attributed the escape of the Emperor and his guests. They had scarcely crossed the threshold of the room when a terrible crash was heard, a large hole was torn in the floor immediately in front of the Emperor, huge candelabras were thrown from the table and lustres torn out of the wall, while the whole place was covered with clouds of dust, masses of broken glass, and fragments of shattered furniture. At the same moment the gas throughout the palace was extinguished. As soon as lights could be brought, messengers were sent to make enquiries about the Empress, who was lying ill in a distant room of the palace, and

THE CAUCACUS CHUTIKEN (SLENKA) AND OTUS, SUANETIA.

who, happily, had not in any way been injured, a minute search was set on foot and the extent of the catastrophe soon became known. In the vaulted room, where the infernal clock-machine had been placed, were a number of soldiers belonging to the Finland Regiment and waiting their turn to go on duty in the palace. Eight of these were instantly killed and forty-five were terribly wounded. The clock had been mounted so as to explode precisely at five minutes past six, by which time it was expected the Emperor and the others would have taken their places at the table.

The Czarevitch and the Grand Duke Vladimir were the first to reach the guard-room after the explosion in the palace, arriving there just as the officers, fearing danger to the Emperor, were about to lead the remaining sentinels to the Imperial apartments. The Grand Duke Vladimir hastened to the barracks to give the alarm, and brought back the Preobrajensky Guards to the palace. It is said that at the moment of the explosion bombs were thrown in the streets outside the palace, some of which exploded under a private carriage, but the facts are, the cavalry, telegraphed for as soon as the alarm was given, galloped off in such haste that many of their cartridges were jerked out of their cartouche cases, and the streets were strewn with these explosives, which, of course, went off under the wheels of passing vehicles, the occupants of which were arrested by the police and bystanders who were ignorant of what had really occurred.

In striking contrast with the domestic treachery which encompassed the Czar in his palace is the fidelity of the Finnish soldiers who formed his body-guard, who, through all political ordeals and insurrectionary conflicts never once faltered in allegiance to their Sovereign. Horribly sudden as the whole mur-

derous surprise was, not one of the injured men would leave his post until their own officer in charge, who was himself wounded, came to give the word of command.

The Czar is said to have been very much affected; so much so as at one time almost to have lost his self-command. When, however, Lord Dufferin called to congratulate him upon his escape, the Emperor remarked that it was to Divine Providence he stood indebted, and that God having mercifully delivered him twice from very imminent peril, he was content to trust his life for the future to His protecting hand. The Duchess of Edinburgh displayed great fortitude and presence of mind in the trying crisis. This was the more noticeable from the fact that Her Imperial Highness was much affected on the occasion of Solovieff's attempt, being then in a delicate state of health.

After the explosion the Emperor left the Winter Palace, and went under escort of thirty Cossacks to the old Paul Palace, where he slept. Next day, on his way to attend the *Te Deum* in the Imperial Chapel in the palace, he stopped before the officers of the Finnish Regiment, and thanked the colonel for the manner in which the soldiers had fulfilled their duty, referring to the fact that all the sentinels remained at their posts, notwithstanding that a company of the Preobrajensky Regiment had arrived to relieve them.

On Friday following the soldiers of the Finnish Guards who were killed by the explosion were interred with great solemnity, the funeral being attended by the Grand Duke Constantine and many generals and staff officers. The coffins were borne to the grave by officers, and there was an immense crowd of spectators. General Gourko, in an order to the troops announcing the interment of their

LIGHT CAVALRY OF THE FINNISH GUARDS.

comrades, said: "May the honorable conduct of the men who were wounded by the explosion convince the insane criminals who planned the attempt that neither their endeavors to bribe the soldiers nor the fear of death itself can shake the loyalty of the troops." The Emperor and the Czarevitch attended the funeral ceremony celebrated in the barracks previous to the starting of the procession for the place of interment, and afterward visited the wounded men in the hospital. It is a remarkable coincidence that it was this same Finnish regiment which, in 1825, was suddenly called to the Winter Palace to overawe and supercede the Grenadiers, whose loyalty was doubted; and it was to them that Alexander, then only a child of seven, was entrusted by his father Nicholas. Taking the little Grand Duke Alexander by the hand, he said, "I confide my son to your care; it will be your duty to defend his life." The rough Finns, it is said, were moved to tears. They took up the child in their arms, passed him from rank to rank, and swore to form a rampart of their bodies behind which he should be safe.

The building where the explosion took place, which is the largest and finest palace in the world, is the usual winter residence of the Czar and his Court. On one side it fronts on the river Neva, while on the other there is a large open space called the Palace Square, in which stands Alexander's Column, a monolith of red granite eighty feet high. On the right of the palace is Peter's Square, which contains the celebrated statue of Peter the Great, and the Field of Mars, a parade ground large enough for 40,000 men to manœuvre in. On the east side of the palace, and connected with it by a covered way, is the Empress Catharine's Hermitage, now a museum. The Nevski Perspective is in front of the Admiralty and close to the Imperial Palace, which, after being

burnt down in 1837, was rebuilt in six months in the middle of winter by order of the Emperor Nicholas. Each story was dried with immense fires as soon as erected, and several thousand workmen met with their death during the rebuilding, in consequence of the alternate exposure to the excessive heat while at work in the apartments, and the rigorous temperature outside. The palace, which is painted a brick red, is four stories high, or about eighty feet. The frontage is 445 feet in length, and the breadth 350 feet. The principal entrance is from the Neva, and leads by a magnificent flight of marble steps to the State Apartments of the palace. A gateway in the centre of the building, facing Alexander's Column, opens into a large court. The interior is most gorgeous, suites of splendid halls being filled with marble, malachite vases, and pictures; whilst the Crown and other jewels are of almost inestimable value. The Czar has his apartments on the first floor and in the corner of the Winter Palace that overlooks the Neva and the Admiralty. The Empress inhabits the other corner, and between the two is the family dining-room. At one and six o'clock the Czar, the Czarina, and the Grand Dukes Alexis, Sergius, and Paul formerly met for breakfast and dinner. The Czarevitch and the Grand Duke Vladimir, who are both married, have also general invitations to join the Imperial circle; but the other members of the family wait until they are bidden. Six covers are always laid, and the service is performed by three French *maitres d'hotel*, who relieve each other every fortnight. The arrangement of the apartments is similar to that of Versailles, there being a multitude of small rooms, and an immense number of civil and military officials having their abode here in separate suites of rooms. The

guards' room, beneath which the charge of dynamite was deposited, is on the ground floor, and was formerly the sleeping apartment of the Grand Duke Nicholas when a child.

The indignation excited by a crime that involved the lives of so many who, even adopting the views of its perpetrators, were completely innocent, was greatly increased in consequence of the general belief that on the approaching 19th of February an imperial manifesto would be issued, conferring political rights on Russian subjects more in accordance with the ideas of the nineteenth century than those hitherto accorded. That all this was more than mere rumor, is certain from papers known to have been left by the late Emperor, and in accordance with which the *zemstra*, or provincial assemblies, would have been granted representative rights which they have long petitioned for but never obtained. We can scarcely wonder that all such constitutional reforms were abandoned, and it speaks much in favor of the late Emperor, that even after February 17, he still had sufficient nerve and belief in the future of Russia, to refuse to adopt measures of an exclusively repressive and retrograde character. On the 25th of February a ministerial committee "for the preservation of Imperial order and public safety," was established under the presidency of Count Loris Melikoff, which became an order in its enforcement little less than terrorism. A night patrol was organized in St. Petersburg which summarily arrested every crowd, numbering more than five persons, caught upon the streets after ten o'clock at night, and single individuals were required to have their passports constantly with them if they appeared away from their homes after dark. But this was not the most serious restriction placed upon the personal liberty of citizens

throughout Russia. The order became finally the means which malicious persons utilized to destroy their enemies. It was only necessary to report, under oath, the active

THE NIGHT PATROL IN ST. PETERSBURG.

sympathy of any person with the Nihilists to secure their imprisonment, and execution or transportation to Siberia. Thus a cowardly criminal could go before the Third Sec-

tion chief and make oath that he had detected his neighbor in the act of circulating revolutionary papers, or committing some other prohibited act, and upon this information the unfortunate, and perhaps innocent person, would be summarily arrested and taken off to the Fortress prison. Hundreds of instances occurred in which blameless men were torn from their families in the middle of the night, and without being permitted to say even good-bye to their wives or children, were ruthlessly carried to that dreadful political prison from which they either never departed alive or were sent across the desert wilds of Siberia to spend the remainder of their wretched lives in exile.

In 1878 no less than one hundred and ninety-three persons were brought to trial at one time, charged with various grades of treason and conspiracy against the Government. Among the prisoners who were condemned was a spirited and intelligent man named Muishkin, who was once a justice of the peace, and proprietor of a printing-office from which forbidden books were issued. In 1875 he went to the distant forests of East Siberia with the intention of freeing the famous thinker and critic, Tchernieshevski, who had been in penal servitude for twelve years for his connection with a secret society, but he was unsuccessful. His speech before the tribunal brought tears to some, caused others to turn pale, to tremble, or to become furious. He was condemned to twenty years' penal servitude at the Central Prison at Kharkov. Single-handed, and with no other implement than his hands, this gigantic minded man began to make an underground passage in his prison to effect his escape. He had nearly finished the tunnel when it was discovered; he was unmercifully lashed then, and, like many other Russian political prisoners. he has since become mad

MOSCOW KREMLIN.

from the barbarous treatment he received. Muishkin's insanity dates from October, 1880.

But condemnations and repressive measures in no wise deterred the Nihilists, who, in fact, became bolder and more revengeful. In the meantime the Government was active in bringing to punishment those arrested for treasonable crimes. In November, 1880, sixteen Nihilists of both sexes were arraigned for treason in St. Petersburg. The principal prisoner was Kviatkovski, who was accused of contributing to the revolutionary organ *Will of the People*, and also of being connected with the conspiracy to blow up the Winter Palace. Others were charged with complicity in the murder of Prince Krapotkin, in Solovieff's attempted assassination of the Czar; others in the attempt to blow up the Imperial train at Moscow; two in the attempts at Alexandrovolsk and Odessa to assassinate Imperial officers, and two others of being connected with secret printing presses. Several of the prisoners were arrested on their own confession, so brave and fanatically patriotic to their purposes were some of the Nilhists. Upon this trial it was proved that a carpenter named Stephen Chalturen, or Halturin, who formerly lodged in the basement of the Winter Palace, was the author and most active agent in the palace explosion. Some of these prisoners were uncommonly well dressed and presented a generally intelligent appearance. Kviatkovski and Presniakov were convicted and executed in the fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul on the 5th of November, 1880. The public were rigidly excluded from the scene of execution, and but one foreign correspondent was permitted to be present. Early in the morning the two prisoners were taken from their cells, and as usual were driven to the scaffold in a cart, riding with their backs to the horses, and bearing a placard with the inscription

"State Criminal" on their breasts. At the glacis of the fortress where the scaffold had been erected the prisoners descended and mounted the scaffold barefooted, where

PORTRAITS OF LEADING NIHILISTS.

they were clad in the long penitential shirt of condemned parricides and were pinioned to two upright posts while

their sentence was read out to them. This over, a priest came forward with a cross, which both kissed, and then kissed one another, while he recited some prayers. The executioner then adjusted the rope, and raising the condemned men high in the air caused their speedy strangulation. The ground was kept by a detachment of the Finland Guard, who were on duty in the Winter Palace on the night of the explosion.

Five others of those condemned at the same trial, November 10th, were Kviatkovski, Shiraiev, Mdlles. Figner, Ivanova, and Griasnova, whose portraits are given. Alexander Kviatkovski, of noble descent, the most important of the prisoners, was arrested by the St. Petersburg police in December, 1879, at the same time as Mdlle. Figner. Three mines ready for explosion, but in dissected pieces, were found in their lodging, as well as dynamite and fulminate, with revolvers, poison, and the plan of the Winter Palace, in which, later on, the explosion took place.

The evidence which came out at this trial disclosed that Kviatkovski, who headed the Terrorist party, was one of those concerned in the explosion of the Winter Palace on April 14, 1880, when eleven men were killed and sixty-six were wounded; that he was an indirect party to the attempt on the Emperor's life by Solovieff on April 2, 1879; and that he took part in the secret congress of the Terrorists at Lipetsk, in 1879, where a series of attempts on the Emperor's life were decided upon, in addition to other less well-known offences.

Mdlle. Figner, daughter of a high Russian official, was twenty-two years old. She was acquitted of any participation in the Winter Palace conspiracy, but was condemned to fifteen years' penal servitude on the charge of her connection with the Terroristic party,

LEO HARTMANN.

..nd for publishing forbidden works. The Court, pitying her youth, begged of the Czarevitch to change her sentence into transportation to Eastern Siberia, where her sister was already in exile. Mdlle. Figner had been a medical student, and she also studied music at the Conservatoire, St. Petersburg. Her voice is said to be one of the most beautiful in Europe.

Shiraiev, of a peasant family, had been studying in a veterinary institute. He lived some time in London and in Paris, and on his return to Russia, in 1879, he joined the Terrorist party, and with Hartmann prepared dynamite for mines. He took part in the secret congress, and with Hartmann again was a party in the Moscow explosion, December 1, 1879. He directed the digging of mines near Odessa and Alexandrovska after this, and shortly after was arrested by the police at St. Petersburg. Condemned to be hung, his sentence was remitted into one of penal servitude for life.

Mdlle. Ivanova, daughter of a major, is the heroine of one of the most extraordinary transactions for a young lady of her age (then only twenty-two years). When the secret printing office of the Terrorist organ *Narodnaia Volia* (People's Will) was discovered, she, with Mdlle. Griasnova and three men, revolvers in hand, kept the police at bay for three hours, firing more than one hundred shots. The gendarmes answered by volleys at both the windows and the doors, and only succeeded in overcoming the party when their stock of cartridges was exhausted. One of the printers, an unknown person, blew out his brains on seeing the inevitable end, the four others surrendered. Mdlle. Ivanova's hands and legs were tied with ropes, and she was thrown on the ground; in this state she reproached her comrades for lack of energy in self-defense. The gendarme officer, hearing

that, struck her in the face with the butt end of his revolver, and kicked her severely. She complained of the man—then a witness against her—before the court martial, but the officer, though he could not deny the fact, disregarded her words.

The two printers, Ivanova and Griasnova, were condemned to fifteen years penal servitude, but at the solicitation of the court-martial, the heir apparent changed the sentence of the former to four years penal servitude, and transportation to Siberia for the latter. Among others, Papov, son of a priest, was convicted about the same time by a court-martial held at Kiev, and sentenced to be hung. He stood at the head of that party of Socialist propagandists whose distinguishing feature is that they do not practice any illegal measures either for self-defense or for propagandism. His bold and straightforward speech before the Court was the cause of his condemnation to death, but his sentence was subsequently altered by the Emperor into penal servitude for life.

Dr. Weimar, whose trial at St. Petersburg in the spring of 1880 caused such a sensation throughout Europe, was condemned to penal servitude at the same time as Mrs. Olga Nathanson. Dr. Weimar was accused of helping two other Nihilists, Mirski and Solovieff, in their criminal designs. He gave his horse to Mirski for his attempt on the life of Drenteln, Chief of the Third Section of the Emperor's Chancellery, and bought the revolver for Solovieff. In the month of October Olga Nathanson became mad in the fortress of St. Petersburg, before she could be sent to Siberia. The real cause of her insanity, it is alleged, lies in the fact that she, with three other young friends, was the subject of criminal violence on the part of the prison officials.

The next attempt at assassination occurred directly after the adoption of the repression measures of 1880, when the Armenian General Loris Melikoff was appointed Chief of the Executive, with unlimited powers, and had inaugurated a more rigid policy than even his predecessors. The attack was, no doubt, directly attributable to the execution of a sub-lieutenant named Donbrovin, which

GENERAL LORIS MELIKOFF.

occurred at St. Petersburg, and upon which occasion General Gourko issued an order to the troops in which he cited the example of Donbrovin as a proof that the aim of the revolutionists was to make the military their accomplices. General Melikoff warmly approved this accusation and made many threats, declaring his purpose to deal with the Nihilists despotically, and indeed he did bring many of the revolutionists to judgment.

Many messages, containing desperate threats, were sent to Melikoff, which caused that astute official to observe special care, but a determined fellow whose name

CONDUCTING GENERAL MELIKOFF'S ASSAILANT TO EXECUTION.

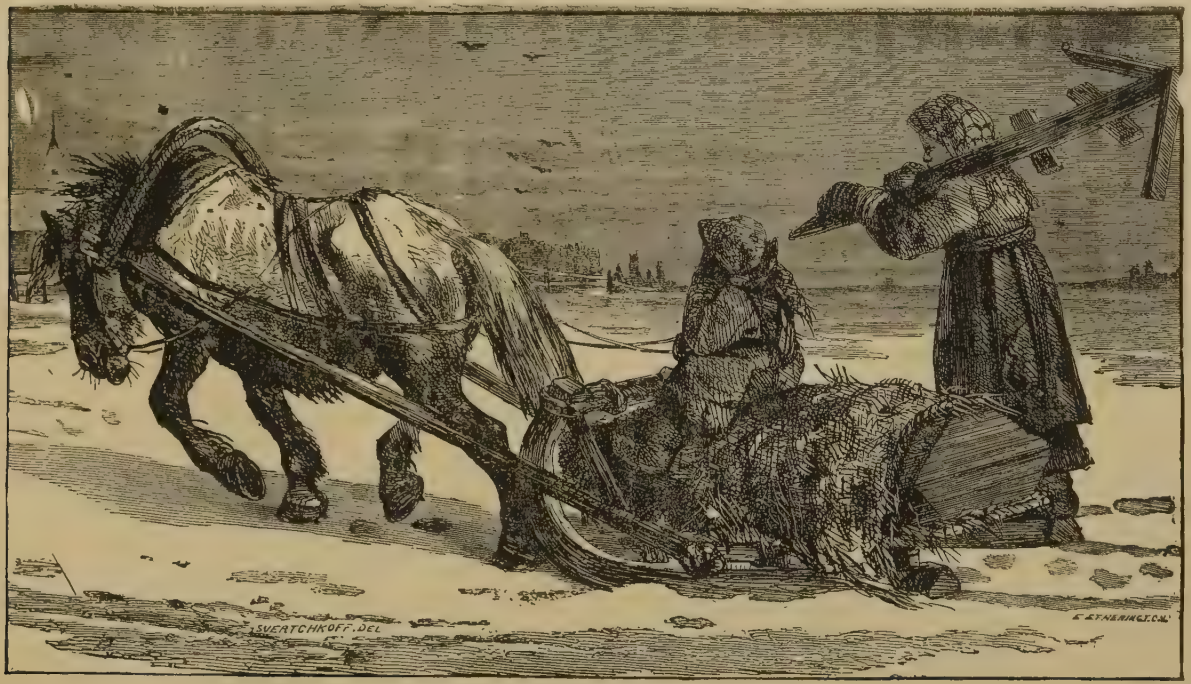
I could not find in the records, caught sight of General Melikoff as he was leaving his carriage to enter the Third Section, and made a vicious attempt to shoot him, discharging a pistol twice at the General but without effect. The assassin was arrested and being brought

to trial was convicted and publicly executed. The prisoner was enveloped with a black shroud, only the face being exposed, and, seated upon a peculiar kind of a chair placed on a box wagon with the back toward the horses, he was driven slowly through the streets, preceded and followed by mounted guards. The engraving, besides giving a portrait of General Melikoff's assailant, shows the method by which prisoners condemned to death are conducted to the place of execution.

CHAPTER VII.

THE culmination of that desperate, unreasonable vengeance which animated the Russian Nihilists was reached on the 13th of March, 1881, when the Czar Alexander II., who deserved little but praise from his countrymen, and whose name must ever be associated with the greatest reforms ever projected by a Russian ruler, was struck down, after five previous attempts, in a horrible death. We can only measure the full terribleness of that most atrocious act, by calling to mind the agony we ourselves suffered in the assassination of our honored and chosen rulers, Lincoln and Garfield. Autocrat though he was, Alexander II. possessed such qualities of heart and mind as made him very dear to the masses of his subjects. Unfortunately he was cradled in adversity and brought up through circumstances which enforced his familiarity with conspiracy.

Born April 29, 1818, Alexander was only seven years of age when the famous conspiracy of the "Decembrists"—Russia's first open cry for a constitution—broke out against his father on his accession to the throne,



FUNERAL OF GEN. MELIKOFF'S ASSAILANT.

which rooted in him a horror of reform and made his reign one continuous repression of liberty and speech. Alexander was provided with a tutor who inspired him with a love for literature and romance, but he was not permitted to follow this gratifying and peaceful inclination. Nicholas, of iron will, compelled him to abandon every pursuit that promised contentment, and at seventeen Alexander became his father's Aid-de-Camp and commandant of the Lancers' Guard. But the boy Prince Imperial could not cultivate a love for the military, and after a short service so weary of spirit did he become that his father, much against his will, gave Alexander a vacation, during which he visited Germany and there wooed and won the Princess Maria of Hesse Darmstadt—a veritable love-match. Upon his return to Russia with his young and loving bride, Alexander interested himself in encouraging education and founded a chair of Finnish literature. In 1850 he visited Southern Russia, where after campaigning for two months in the Caucasus, upon Woronzow's recommendation, the order of St. George was conferred upon him. But under Nicholas all persons, even heirs to the throne, were inconsequential unless they had won honors upon the field of battle or by diplomacy redounding to his advantage. Thus, beyond certain disagreements with the "Old Russian" party, whose idol was his younger brother Constantine, and a decided though silent disapproval of his father's policy in bringing on the Crimean war, there was little to observe in the Czarevitch's unassuming life until the fateful day when defeat and disappointment drove his father to seek surcease in death. In his dying moments, March 2, 1855, Nicholas called Alexander to his bedside, and taking his hand, said: "My son, I now bestow upon you the crown of Russia, in succession to your dying father; you will, I

STATUE OF PETER THE GREAT AND ADMIRALTY PALACE, ST. PETERSBURG.

am sorry to say, find the burden heavy," and then expired.

How Alexander II. took up the scepter of Government and wielded it for the benefit of his subjects has already been told, and now remains the task of describing how, after several diabolical attempts, he was at last stricken down by the fell hand of assassination and left the whole civilized world weeping beside his bier.

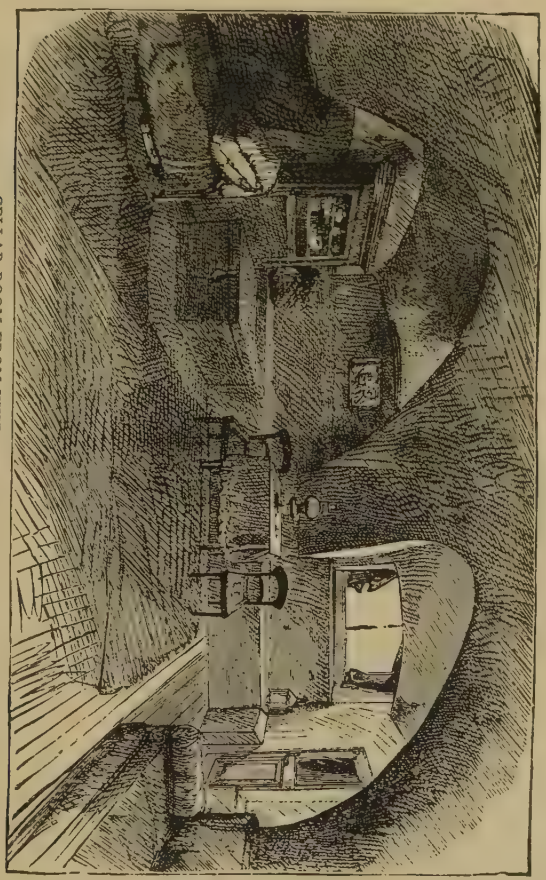
It was the custom of the Czar to take mid-day lunch every Sunday with his sister in the Michael Palace, which stands not far from the center of St. Petersburg, in a considerable forest of trees surrounded by a high wall. This custom being well known, a body of Nihilists set about to compass his assassination in the following manner:

Two of the conspirators engaged a cellar-room under a large, lead colored, four-story building which stands on the corner of Little Garden street and the Nevski Prospekt, and immediately facing the large bronze statue of Catharine II. This place was chosen because there are only two streets leading from Michael Palace, viz.: Little Garden street from the east, and an exit south into a narrow street running parallel with the Catharine Canal. As the former was generally used by the Czar, because of its smooth pavement, it was here that the conspirators decided to make most ample preparations to accomplish their deadly purpose.

The cellar-room engaged was used for a considerable time as a milk and cheese depot, the better to enable the assassins to disguise their real occupation. During this time they excavated a tunnel entirely across the street and placed therein the enormous charge of *sixty pounds of dynamite*, which was connected by an electric wire, so that the mine could be discharged at any instant. It is declared by those familiar with the destructiveness of this

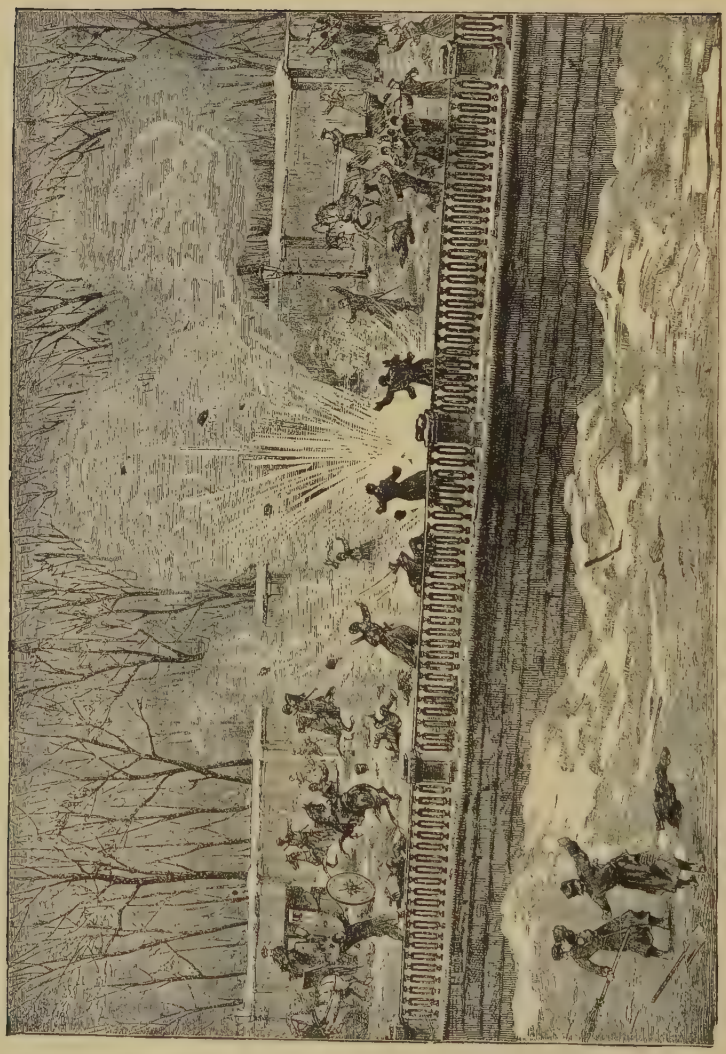
most powerful explosive, that had the mine been exploded it would have razed fully one-half of the entire city and killed thousands of people.

It is astonishing how great a work was carried on in



CELLAR-ROOM FROM WHENCE THE MINE WAS LAID.

so central a place without detection, particularly since the fact is known that General Melikoff received several letters notifying him that the end of the Czar Alexander was near at hand, and also that his assassination would



EXPLOSION OF THE SECOND DYNAMITE BOMB, WHICH KILLED THE EMPEROR.

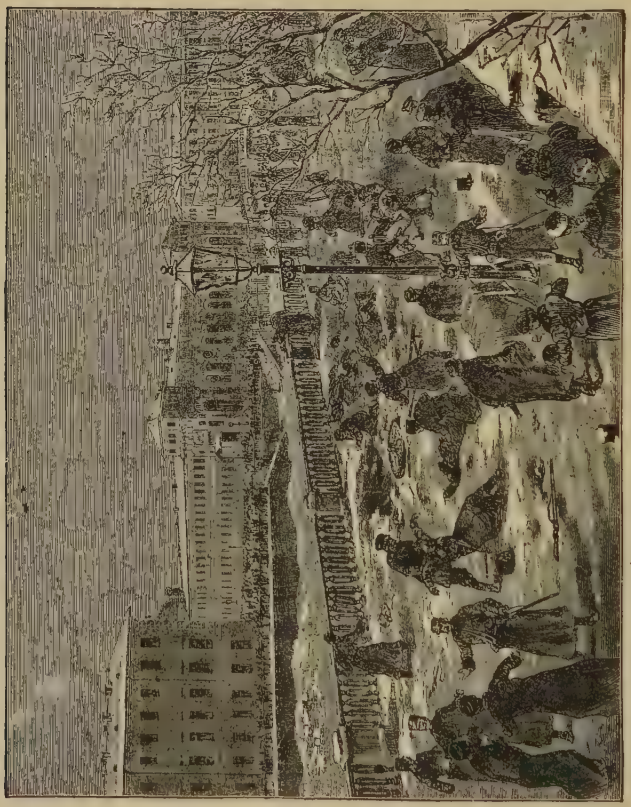
be accomplished on the very day it was brought about. This latter information Melikoff communicated to Alexander and begged of him not to go out on that day, but such threats had become too common for this one to be specially observed.

The dynamite mine being completed and ready for its deadly work, which it was expected to perform on Sunday afternoon, March 13th, 1881, the assassins posted a watch to give information when the Czar should come driving from the Michael Palace toward the Nevski Prospekt. But to make their purpose more certain, although it was only on extremely rare occasions that the Emperor ever left the palace by the Catharine Canal street, yet in view of the possibility that on this occasion he might do so, another party of Nihilists were stationed along this street, two of them taking their positions near the gate. These two were each provided with Orsini bombs—glass balls the size of a hen's egg, loaded with dynamite—while two others stood on the ice in the canal, also having bombs in their pockets, while a woman, Sophia Perofskaja, stood at the corner of the palace grounds from whence, by waving a handkerchief, she could signal the four conspirators if the Czar should leave the palace by Little Garden street.

Shortly before two o'clock in the afternoon his Majesty drove out of the palace grounds by way of the canal, but scarcely had he proceeded a rod from the gate when one of the conspirators threw a bomb which burst so far to the rear of the carriage that its force was expended on two of the Cossack guards, who were instantly killed, together with their horses, while the rear of the Imperial carriage was shattered, but the Czar received no injury.

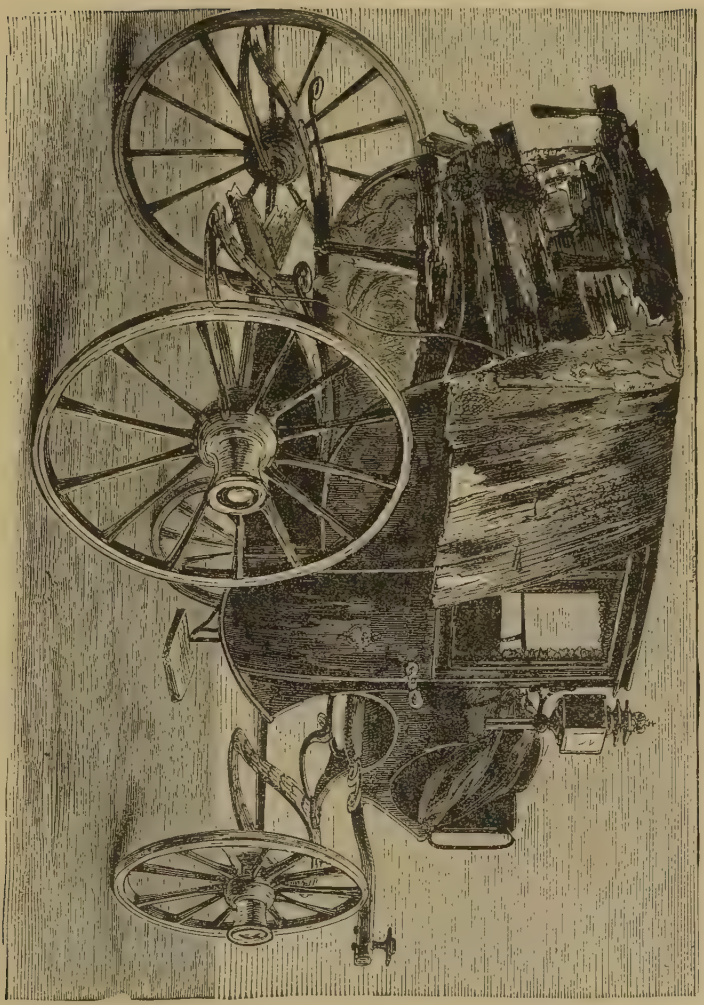
The report was so great that many persons were imme-

diately attracted to the spot. The Czar stepped out of the carriage, though his coachman urged him to resume his seat, and advanced toward Colonel Dvorketsky, Chief of Police, who as usual, was following behind in a sledge,



SCENE IMMEDIATELY AFTER THE EXPLOSION OF THE SECOND BOMB.

and who had already seized the culprit, who was struggling violently with the Colonel and trying to use a pistol and dagger. Assistance was at hand, however, and the assassin was soon disarmed; he proved to be a young student named Risakoff, belonging to the Institute of Mining

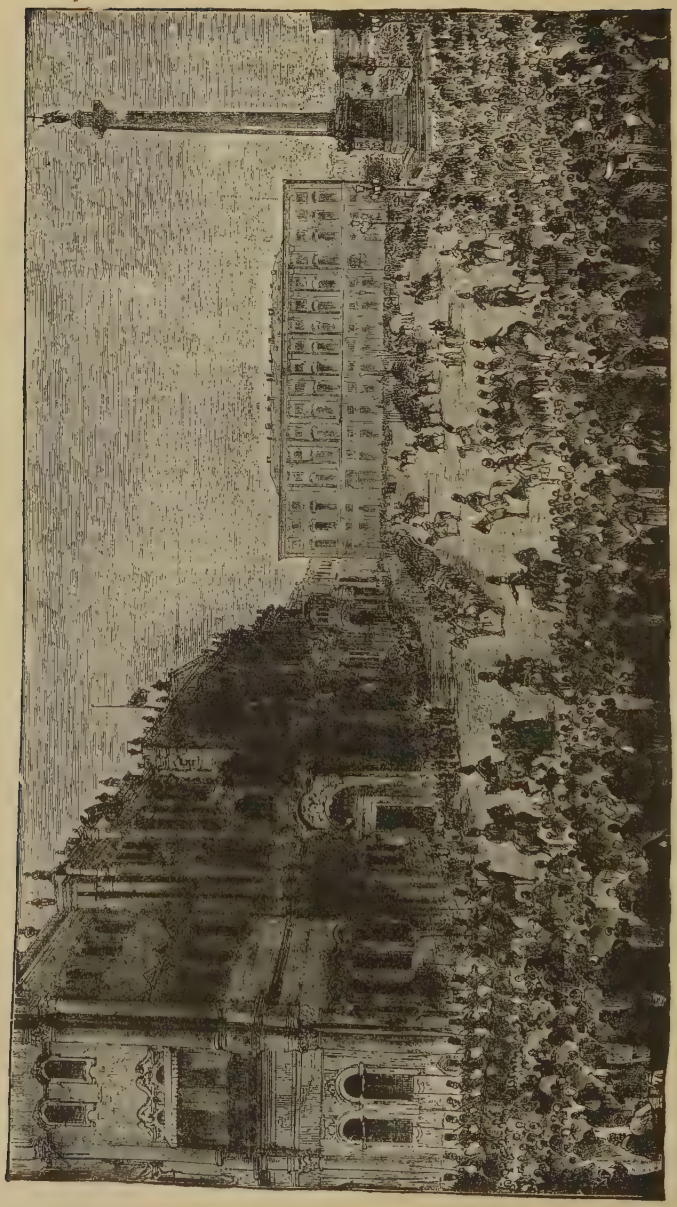


APPEARANCE OF THE EMPEROR'S CARRIAGE AFTER THE FIRST EXPLOSION.

CONVEYING THE WOUNDED CZAR TO THE PALACE.

Engineers. A moment after, several officers congratulated the Czar upon his marvellous escape, to whose kind words he replied: "Give God the praise," and then piously crossing himself, he gave directions concerning the care of the wounded and started, on foot, toward the Winter Palace. He had taken less than a half-dozen steps when another bomb was thrown which struck and burst at his feet with most horrible effect. The Czar reeled and fell amid a cloud of smoke, uttering but a single cry, "Help!" The force of the explosion was so great that all the glass in neighboring houses was broken, the assassin, Elnikoff, was himself mortally wounded, and a boy was instantly killed, while eleven of the Czar's body-guard were seriously injured.

Staff Captain Novikoff was the first to reach his Majesty, and throwing himself weeping at the Emperor's side, exclaimed, "Good God! What has happened to your Majesty?" The Emperor remained motionless, and Novikoff, with the assistance of some sailors, who had hurried to the spot, lifted him up, himself holding the wounded Czar around the body and breast, while the sailors, without letting go of their carbines, held the feet. The Emperor then attempted to lift his hand to his bleeding brow, murmuring twice the word "Cold." Novikoff was just about to take his handkerchief from his pocket to bind around the Emperor's head, when the Grand Duke Michael came up and, bending down close to the Emperor's face, said, "How do you feel?" What his Majesty replied it was difficult to catch. The Grand Duke ordered the sailors to throw down their carbines, and then, taking a cap from one of the bystanders, placed it on the Emperor's head. They then began to move forward. Novikoff asked the Grand Duke whether he would allow the bearers to carry the Emperor into the



VIEW IN ALEXANDER PLACE AT THE MOMENT OF THE EMPEROR'S DEATH.

nearest house for the purpose of applying bandages to the wounded parts. The Emperor, who evidently retained consciousness, on hearing this, whispered in broken language, "Carry to palace, there die," and some few more words which were unintelligible.

He was placed in Colonel Dvorketsky's sledge and driven directly to the palace, followed by an immense crowd of sorrow-stricken citizens, many of whom were crying like children who saw before them the mangled body of a beloved father.

Upon reaching the palace the Emperor was carried up stairs into his study, where a bed was improvised, upon which he was laid for a surgical examination. Six of the ablest surgeons in St. Petersburg were instantly called, but the moment they saw how dreadful were his wounds they frankly told him there was no hope for recovery. His Majesty suffered excruciating agony so long as consciousness lasted; both his legs were crushed and cut in a shocking manner, the femoral arteries being severed, from which alone he must have died through hemorrhage had there been no other injuries; but portions of glass were driven into the lower parts of his body, while there were also two severe cuts in his face from which large pieces of glass were extracted. Seeing that death was inevitable, the Court Chaplain administered the last sacrament during a short interval of consciousness and, while the surgeons were considering an operation on the Emperor, his Majesty surrendered the crown forever, at 3:35 P. M., one hour and fifty minutes after receiving his wounds. Surrounding his bedside at the time of dissolution was a large number of the Imperial family, including the Czarevitch and Czarina, who manifested such grief as is rarely witnessed.

During the painful suspense which followed the first

KISSING THE BIBLE AND SWEARING ALLEGIANCE TO THE NEW CZAR.

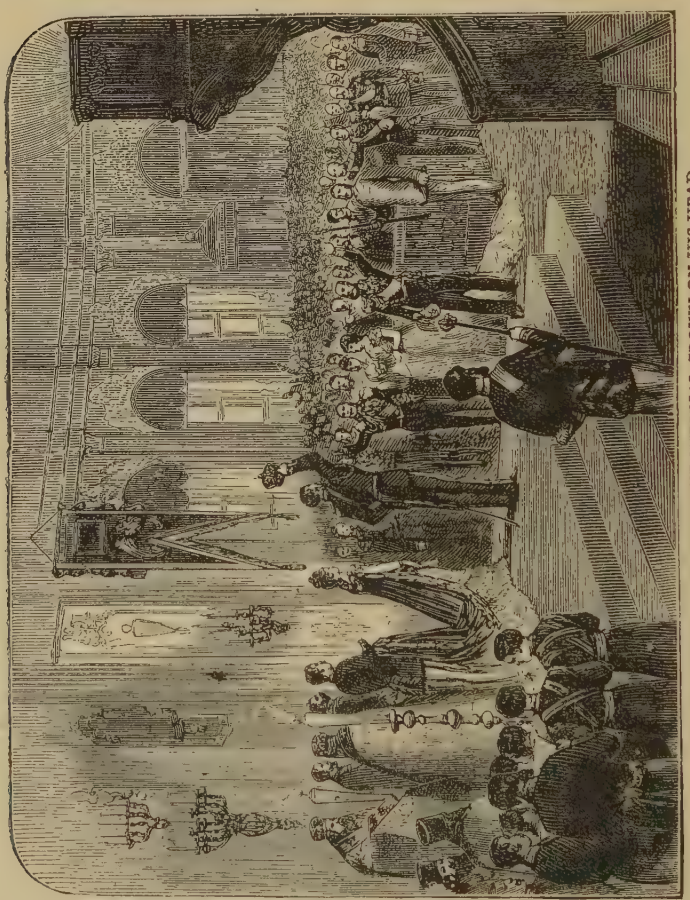
news of the fatal attack on the Emperor an enormous crowd of people gathered in Alexander Square fronting the palace and gave expression to a sorrow deep-felt and inconsolable. At intervals of every fifteen minutes a flag was displayed from the palace which indicated the Emperor's condition, and as each time showed him to be more rapidly sinking the crowd became more demonstrative in their grief. When at length the Emperor's death was announced by raising the Imperial standard at half-mast, the assemblage fell upon their knees and became mute in silent prayer.

On the same evening of the Czar's death the troops in St. Petersburg and members of the Imperial family, according to their custsom, kissed the Bible and then took the oath of allegiance to the new Czar, who repaired to the Winter Palace Chapel and in the presence of the State and church dignataries placed the Imperial Crown of Russia on his head and was proclaimed Emperor, under the title of Alexander III.

After assuming the crown the new Emperor and Empress drove to their own palace, where they remained until his manifesto of March 27th was issued, designating his brother, the Grand Duke Vladimir, regent in case of his own death before his son, the present Czarevitch, attained his majority.

The remains of the dead Emperor lay in state for one week, during which time expressions of sympathy and horror at the dreadful act which brought about his death, poured in upon the Royal Family from every nation of the earth, besides hundreds of beautiful tokens, from contemporary sovereigns in Europe, such as wreaths of silver, crowns, crosses and mottoes, most artistically worked, of the same precious material. On Sunday, March 20th, the body of the Emperor was taken to the

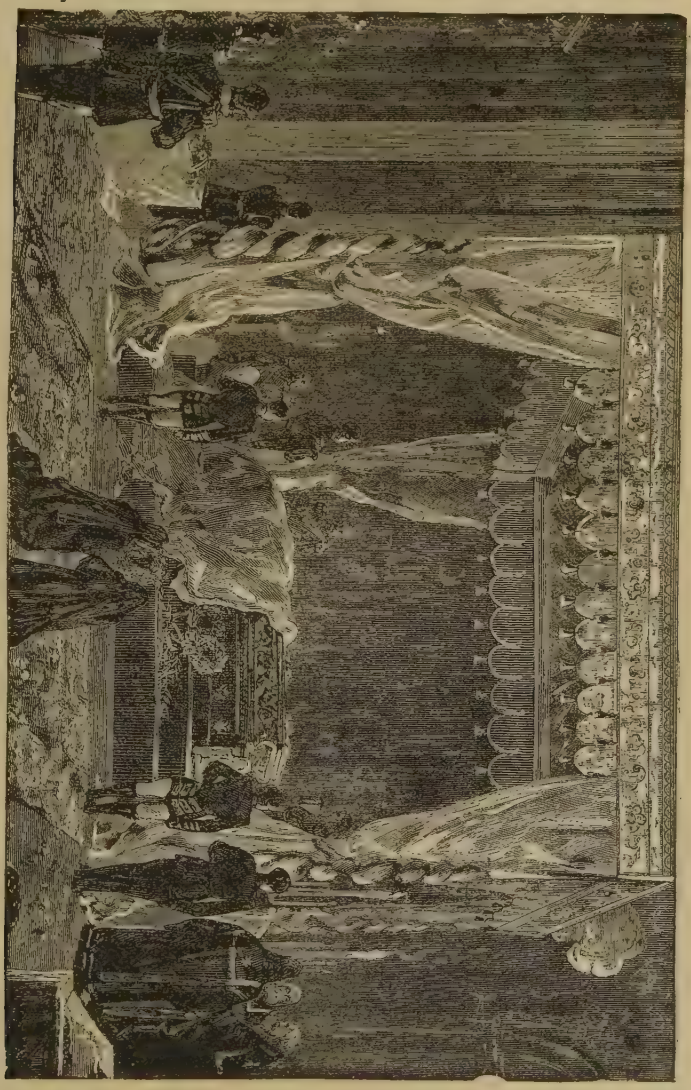
Fortress Chapel of St. Peter and St. Paul, where it was deposited in a marble sarcophagus beside the remains of his loved Empress, who died of a lingering illness one year be-



ALEXANDER III. PLACING THE IMPERIAL CROWN ON HIS HEAD.

fore. After the workmen had deposited the coffin in the vault beneath the Fortress church, and removed their tools, the Governor of the city went down into the pit alone, swung to and locked the heavy door, and on

emerging, handed the key to the chief of the new Czar's household, and it was afterward deposited in a place of security in the Winter Palace.



REMAINS OF THE EMPEROR LYING IN STATE IN THE WINTER PALACE.

The Fortress Chapel is one of the most elaborate and gorgeous, in interior decoration, in the world. It is the repository of all members of the House of Romanoff since the time of Peter the Great, with the single exception of Peter II., who, dying in Moscow, was by his own request buried there. The interior presents a rare combination of gold, silver and tinsel work, giving an appearance of fairy-like splendor. Arranged around the single immense room, in two rows, are the marble sarcophagi enclosed by an iron railing. From the ceiling is suspended a rich canopy reaching down over the sacristy, while the pillars are decorated with standards taken in the wars with France, Sweden, Poland, Turkey and Persia. There are also several silver and gold *icons* —sacred images—before which candles are kept constantly burning. On the sarcophagus of Alexander II., and also on that of the Empress, there is placed a gold crown inside of which a small lamp is always burning, which, throwing its rays through interstices of the crowns, produces a beautiful effect. On the wall, immediately opposite, are hung the emblems of mourning presented by other countries after the Czar's assassination, and also wreaths of immortelles which are replaced, from time to time, by those who revere his memory.

Directly after the Czar's death, Minister Pleve, who had been commissioned to the position he then held for his services in detecting those concerned in the palace explosion of 1879, was called upon to discover all the conspirators concerned in the commission of the dreadful crime, and so thoroughly did he prosecute his investigations, that scarcely had the Czar been laid away, before he procured the arrest of Nicholas Jelaboff, Sophie Perofskaja, Hessy Helfmann, Nicholas Risakoff, Gabriel Michailoff, Jean Kibaichich, and several others who-however, proved their innocence.

THE FORTRESS CHAPEL—LAST RESTING PLACE OF THE IMPERIAL DEAD.

Directly after these arrests were made another important step was taken in consequence of discoveries made in examining the premises and opening the dynamite mine laid in Little Garden street. It was proved that the police had information in connection with the mine

TOMB OF THE EMPEROR IN THE FORTRESS CHAPEL ONE WEEK AFTER BURIAL.

which if utilized would have led to the arrest of the conspirators and prevented the Czar's assassination. The public officers accused of a criminal neglect of their duties were Major General Constantine Mrovinsky; Paul Tegleff, chief officer of the Spassky District; General Fursoff, chief of the Secret Section of the Prefecture, and

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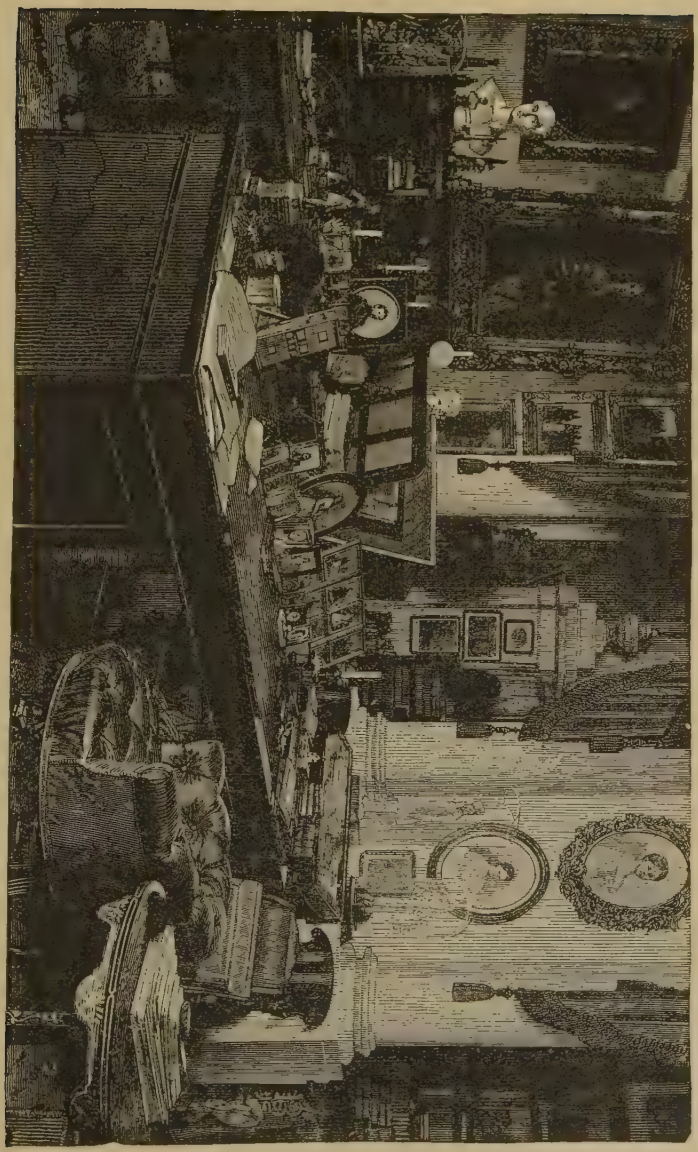
THE CAUCACUS BALKAN VALLEY MOUNTAINS, THE ADZI VALLEY.

two State Councillors. It was asserted that Mrovinsky had been instructed by Tegleff to make a thorough inspection of Kobezeff's quarters, whose milk and cheese shop had been reported as being a headquarters for the Nihilists. This investigation was not made by Mrovinsky, while Tegleff was charged with neglect in not enforcing the order, as he had direct information of Kobezeff's plot. Fursoff was also brought to trial because he took no measures to verify the suspicions which had been communicated to him, and because he did not inform his superiors of what was taking place until the evening of the assassination. It was shown that the three officers did visit Kobezeff's shop, but that finding his papers regular they made no examination of the premises.

It was three days after the assassination before the police entered the shop, there being grave fears excited that an attempt to do so would cause an explosion of the mine. The greatest precautions were observed after an entrance was at length made, when a tunnel was discovered leading across the street, and two batteries in wooden boxes were found, with their wires ready for use. Had the two poles of the batteries been brought in contact (and they were not more than three inches apart) an instantaneous explosion would have followed. It is therefore an act of singular fortune that the mine was uncovered without causing a calamity of gigantic proportions.

The assassins, arrested through the skilful detective ability of Pleve, were brought to trial on April 9th. The Judges, who were presided over by Senator Fuchs, held their sittings in the Circuit Court of the Litejnaja Prospekt. Both the inside and the outside of the building were carefully guarded by police, who prevented all persons except those furnished with special passes from entering. At each end of the dock also stood two



THE CZAR'S STUDY, TO WHICH HE WAS CONVEYED AFTER RECEIVING HIS WOUNDS.

gendarmes with drawn swords, and in front of the prisoners sat their counsel. The Procurer, or Crown Advocate, sat at the end of the judicial bench, and on a table in the centre of the room were the mute evidences of the prisoners' guilt in the form of bombs, bottles of explosive liquids, etc. Above hung a picture of the late Czar, draped in black hangings. The proceedings were exceedingly simple. First the indictment was read, and to this each prisoner in turn replied by a long speech, in no way repudiating his or her complicity in the Revolutionary movement, although some denied being concerned in the actual assassination of the Czar. The prisoners were six in number: Risakoff, the man who threw the first bomb (Elnikoff, who threw the second, died from the effects of the explosion); Sophie Perofskaja, the well-known female conspirator, who gave the signal by waving a handkerchief on the opposite side of the canal; Jelaboff, the organizer of the attempt, and an agent in the third degree of the Revolutionary Executive Committee; Kibaichich, who appears to have prepared the explosive liquids; Hessy Helfman, a Jewess, who was arrested in the Nihilist laboratory in Telejewskaja street a day or two after the attempt, and Gabriel Michaeloff, who was arrested while entering one of the Nihilists' resorts which had been discovered and occupied by the police. After the prisoners had made their speeches, witnesses were examined, having been previously sworn by ministers of their own persuasion. These pastors ranged from a Moslem mollah to a Dominican monk, and contributed a picturesque air to the scene. Then the Procurer, M. Mouravieff, commenced his summing-up of the charges against the prisoners, seizing the occasion for a political denunciation of the Revolutionists and the countries which sheltered them, and going minutely into the character and

career of the various prisoners. Of these Sophia Perofskaja alone belonged to the class of nobles. She

THE NEW CZAR AND CZARINA DRIVING TO THEIR PALACE AFTER THE ASSASSINATION.

fled from home at the age of fifteen, and is stated to have lived thereafter on her own resources taking, in

late years of her life considerable part in the Nihilists' plots. She it was who gave the signal for the explosion on the Moscow line when the pilot train was wrecked. Her grandfather was a Minister of State, and her father had been Governor of St. Petersburg. She had for some time been the companion of Jelaboff, who is said to have been the type of a Revolutionary leader, and one of the most important members of the party. Risakoff, who had been a pupil of the School of Mines, and Kibaichich, once a member of the Academy of Engineers, were portrayed as simple instruments in Jelaboff's hands, and also Michaeloff, who was a poor, uneducated peasant. To the Procurer replied either the prisoners or their counsel, as the former thought proper, and Jelaboff made another oration in favor of his Socialistic opinions.

There is nothing in the annals of criminal jurisprudence of more thrilling interest, in the display of unexampled fortitude and fanatical heroism, than is shown in the record of this great political trial. So great was the thirst of these criminals for the approbation of their compatriots, that when this opportunity came for immolating themselves in the cause of anarchy, they unflinchingly acknowledged their guilt and dared the Imperial power to expend its vengeance on them. To the question put to them by the Court: "Are you guilty or not guilty?" Jelaboff, the arch assassin, responded: "Guilty, and I would to God that my crime had been greater. Of no act in my life am I so proud, and it gives me a felicitous pleasure in acknowledging the part I took in assassinating the Emperor. Not that I entertained a special personal dislike for him, but because, as a patriot, I detested the policy which he pursued for the oppression of his subjects. The fate which overtook the dead Emperor awaits his successor as surely as there is a God who reckons the crimes of oppressors."

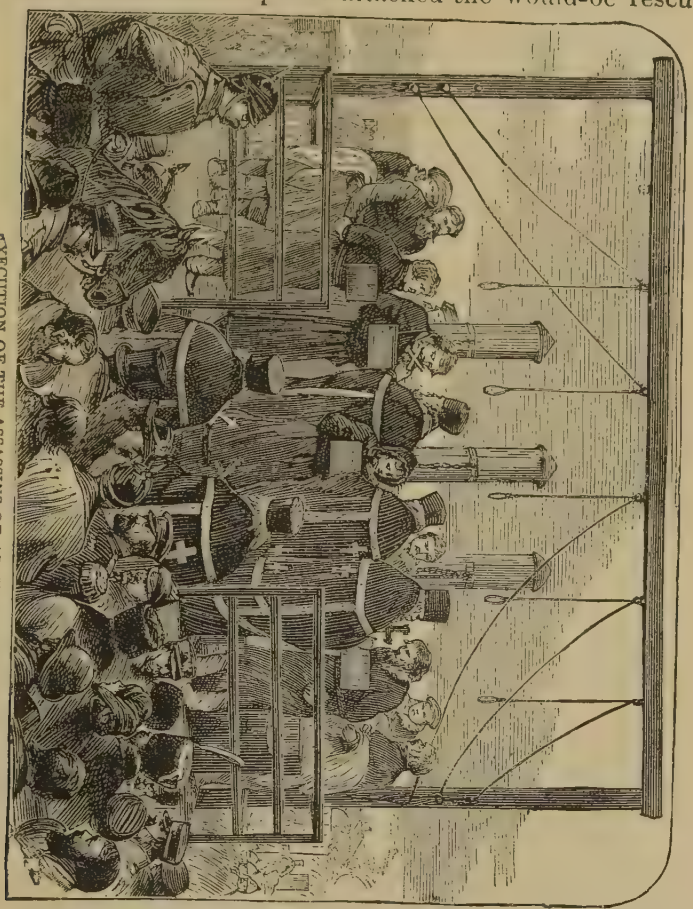
TRIAL OF THE EMPEROR'S ASSASSINS.

Jelaboff would have said much more had he not been restrained by the bailiffs, this much of his speech being delivered in spite of their efforts to enforce his silence. The sentiment he expressed was re-echoed by his accessories, so that nothing remained for the Court to do but hear testimony from the Government witnesses and to pass sentence of death upon the accused. It has been stated, but not confirmed, that after the prisoners were sentenced and returned to the Fortress prison, one or more of them were subjected to the most agonizing torture, in order to force from them a confession that would expose all their associates in crime, and whatever information they possessed of the Nihilists' plots and intentions. There appeared in several daily papers published in America, a lengthy correspondence from abroad, detailing elaborately the punishments inflicted upon the condemned; that red-hot needles were introduced beneath their finger nails, and that the nails on their toes were torn off, after which fire was applied to the bared flesh; but though one gentleman in St. Petersburg assured me that such torture was really committed upon Jelaboff, yet I feel assured there is not the least truth in such report. Indeed, two gentlemen who were witnesses of the execution, and who were near enough to Jelaboff to observe fully his condition, particularly as his feet were bare, declared to me that the story of torture was an absurdity. My purpose in mentioning the report here is only to give it denial, which is an act of justice to the Russian Government that I cannot consistently withhold.

The day for the execution of the six criminals was fixed for April 15th, but the sentence was commuted as to Hessy Helfmann, to exile in Siberia for life, owing to the fact that she was about to become a mother.

On the 13th of April a mad attempt to rescue the prison-

ers was made by a mob of nearly two hundred persons, who forced their way into the large court of the Fortress and demanded the production of the culprits. A large force of soldiers and police attacked the would-be rescu-



EXECUTION OF THE ASSASSINS OF ALEXANDER II.

ers, killing some and wounding several, while nearly all the others were arrested; on the persons of twenty of those arrested bombs were found, but why none of them were used is a question difficult to answer.

It was expected that at the execution another attempt would be made to rescue the condemned, to meet which a large body of soldiers was ordered to escort the culprits and form in hollow square around the gallows. This served to prevent any demonstration upon the part of sympathizers, for although the crowd who witnessed the execution numbered not less than five thousand persons, perfect order was maintained; indeed, strange enough, there was no sympathy whatever manifested for the assassins.

As the condemned mounted the gallows there was an oppressive silence wholly unrelieved until Risakoff fainted as the noose was being adjusted about his neck; the others manifested perfect composure to the last. The execution, however, proved a sickening scene, for in addition to the feeling created by reason of Risakoff fainting, the rope which suspended Michaeloff broke, so that the half-suffocated criminal fell in a heap on the platform. Unable now to stand, he was picked up in a limp condition by two deputies who adjusted another rope about his neck. But astonishing to relate, again the rope broke, and thus the horrible scene of hanging one man three times was witnessed, which drew forth many expressions of disgust from the crowd, who jeered at and reviled the executioners.

Thus terminated the last act connected with the most exciting and dreadful incident in Russian history. The love borne for Alexander II., by a very large majority of his subjects, was greater perhaps than that shown by the Russians for any other sovereign, and as time passes their appreciation for the many good qualities, which he undoubtedly possessed, rapidly increases, as may be seen by the demonstrations still made to keep his memory fresh in their hearts. A memorial chapel was erected over the spot where the Emperor received his fatal wounds, which

ALEXANDER III. AND THE ROYAL FAMILY.

was dedicated to his remembrance on the 29th of April, 1881, by the Metropolitan Archbishop Isidore. There were present at the services an immense crowd of citizens from every part of the Empire, nearly all the Imperial family, Ministers of State, and many foreign ambassadors. The new Emperor and Empress were the only notables absent, a fact much commented upon at the time, as it was an evidence that Alexander III. entertained fears for his own life, and therefore would not trust himself among a promiscuous assemblage, even though his person were guarded by a multitude of soldiers.

The chapel thus erected was a light frame structure covered with immortelles and beautiful flowers contributed from relatives and sympathizers at home and abroad. During the present year, however, a more substantial chapel was built to replace the original one, in which there are three altars covered with a full service of church plate of gold and silver of the finest chased workmanship. It is intended to erect a magnificent memorial church on the spot, which is regarded as sacred, out of the voluntary contributions made for that purpose by faithful subjects of the Empire; to this end a repository is affixed to the chapel which is daily filled by small offerings from the hundreds of peasants who repair to the place to offer up prayers. A guard is constantly stationed before the chapel to guard its treasures, and all footmen passing the shrine reverently remove their hats and cross themselves as a token of the love they bear for the Emperor's memory.

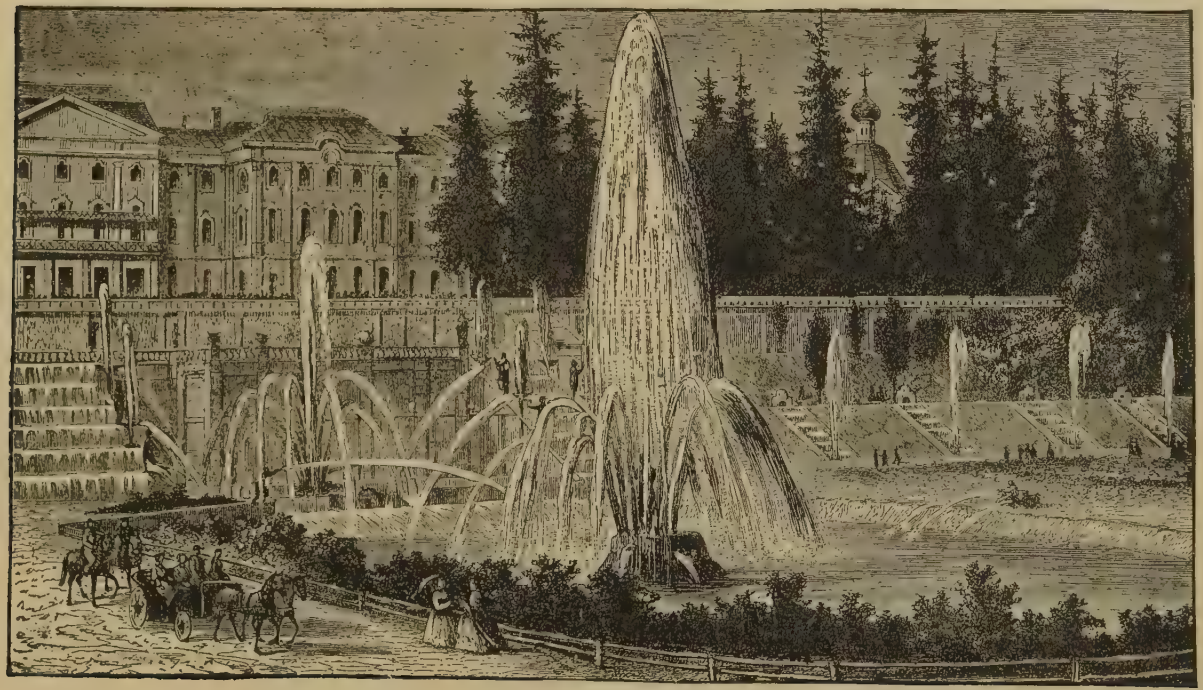
CHAPTER VIII.

When Alexander III. assumed the royal purple, which had been crimsoned by his father's blood, everyone confidently predicted a great change from the previous administration. So seriously was the nation shocked by the death of Alexander II. that there was a revulsion in public sentiment against the anarchists, and in favor of the autocracy; many leading Nihilists even, particularly in London and Geneva, expressed chagrin and condemnation at the assassination, which produced an effect in Russia to the serious detriment of Nihilism. But this sympathy was short-lived, a fact which I have no hesitancy in declaring was due wholly to the retirement of Alexander III., thus giving incontestable proof of his alarm. Not satisfied with the protection afforded him at his palace in St. Petersburg, he removed his State residence to Peterhoff, where special arrangements for his security were provided.

Upon a hill, overlooking the Finland Gulf and commanding a beautiful, though distant view of Cronstandt, stands the Imperial Palace, a large and elegant structure with all the accessories of royalty. There is a large fish pond, and an immense lake adjacent, its shores embowered by lofty trees and its bosom studded with beautiful islands, on one of which there is an ornate building provided especially for the Emperor to dine in during the summer months. The palace grounds are, beyond compare, the finest in all Europe, far surpassing those around the Great Trianon in Versailles; indeed, they appear more like fairy-land than the surroundings of a self-exiled potentate. Such fountains can be seen in no other place, and are positively bewildering in their beauty. One of these, called the Golden Stairway

Fountain, is extravagant with magnificence. It consists of *twenty-four steps, each twenty feet long, one foot high and one foot in breadth, of pure gold.* Of course the steps are not solid gold, for there is not sufficient of the precious metal in all the world to cast so many blocks of such a size; but the sheets of gold used in making them are of enormous value, in fact princely. This fountain leads down from the Court entrance of the palace, and as the water pours over in a succession of cascades, glimmering with a golden sheen, the effect is bewitching in its incomparable splendor. But there are many other fountains on the grounds of only secondary importance, on which gold is a conspicuous feature, blending in artistic beauty with statues of men, animals, fowls and reptiles.

But the new Czar takes no pleasure in surroundings so grandly beautiful, for looking only to a retreat that promises security from Nihilistic conspiracies, he makes his residence in a small cottage on the Peterhoff grounds, which is enclosed by a double wall ten feet high and two feet thick. There is only a small garden about this humble building, in which the Czar takes occasional walks, but never except in some disguise, on account of a distrust which he has for every servant about him. A party of Cossacks are day and night on guard around the inner wall, and a full company of Finnish guards are always on duty, mounted, around the outer wall; so that a body of men who would attempt to forcibly reach the Emperor, could only do so by dispersing two lines of guards and overcoming a large body-guard that attends his Majesty. But even these precautions do not comprise all the measures taken to preserve the Czar's life from assassination. He has given an imperative order to his guards to shoot down, without challenge, any one who



PALACE OF PETERHOFF.

shall approach within fifty feet of him in his garden without special permission. During my stay in St. Petersburg, in July, 1882, a melancholy incident of this ridiculous order occurred, which shocked the whole city. It being a warm day, the Emperor went into his garden, and while passing along one of the gravelled walks, he discovered a shrub that had been broken down by some careless act. Not far from him was an old man, beyond sixty years of age, engaged in cultivating flowers; the Czar beckoned to him, intending to instruct him to bind up the broken shrub. In obedience to the tacit call, the old man started over to where the Emperor was, but when he approached within the forbidden distance, a guard, who had not observed the Emperor's motion, fired upon the innocent old gardener, killing him instantly. It is said the Czar was very much angered at the guard, and that besides having *his* victim buried with the honors accorded a faithful soldier who dies on duty, he also granted a pension to the murdered man's family.

But in addition to these precautions, there are three corvettes stationed in the gulf facing the grounds enclosing the Czar's cottage, armed with long-range rifle-guns, to guard against approaches by sea. No boat, however small, is permitted to land before the Emperor's grounds; electric lights are kept burning all night on the corvettes, which flood the sea and shore with radience and enable the naval guard to detect any craft which might appear approaching the royal residence.

Occasionally the Emperor visits his palace at Gatchina, twenty miles inland from Peterhoff, where equally strong measures for his protection are provided. When making the trip between these two places he is in disguise and never allows any intimation of his visit to be announced beforehand.

This isolation, through fear, is an invitation to danger, and serves to exalt Nihilism far beyond its own inherent strength. How great the contrast between Alexander III. and Nicholas I. is shown in the following historical incident. In 1854, when Russia was staggering under destructive defeats from the Allied Forces, a plague seized upon the people, so that they died in great numbers. Ignorant, superstitious and rebellious, a cry was raised by his subjects that Nicholas had ordered all the waters of Russia poisoned; that he had colluded with the physicians of his Empire to destroy his people because they grumbled at extravagances practiced in conducting the war. This senseless cry soon grew into a concerted plan for vengeance, which more than three thousand men assembled in Alexander Square to put into execution. The Emperor, who was in the Winter Palace, immediately comprehended the danger of his position, and with quick perception, seized upon the only possible plan that could save his life.

The palace being surrounded escape was imposible, while there were no soldiers whom the Czar could summon to his aid. Hastily putting on his Imperial helmet and regimentals he declared to the attendants his intention of boldly facing the mob. All attempts to persuade him from this purpose being unavailing, his aid-de-camp begged to be allowed the privilege of accompanying him, but this Nicholas refused, saying: "If my life is to be taken it would avail nothing to sacrifice yours also." With this he descended the stairway and alone marched out into the mob who, awed by his majestic manner, gave way and permitted him unmolested to gain the Alexander Column. Being now in the very center of his enemies, he mounted upon a block which stood beside the column and in a stentorian voice shouted: "Chil-

dren! Dogs! Down upon your knees!" As though stricken by a stroke from heaven, that vast assemblage, who had before been howling for the Emperor's blood, dropped upon their knees with one accord and then shouted: "Brave Nicholas! we hail you Emperor of all Russia; long live your Gracious Majesty!"

This incident serves to show the mercurial disposition of all Russians. Brave themselves, nothing excites in them such admiration as an act of defiance when danger threatens.

A knowledge of Russian character led directly to the belief that if Alexander III. would assume a fearless attitude, by presenting himself before his people like one under the ægis of patriotic resolution, he would dispel the sceptre of assassination and be hailed as a sovereign worthy the sceptre he held. But so sure as he continued to manifest fear, and cower before an exaggerated idea of his enemies, so sure would he be hurled from the throne by either a gigantic insurrectionary movement or fall a victim to some fanatic then plotting his destruction. No measures of protection, however rigid, could save him, for assassins will spring up in his most secret chamber, among those most implicitly trusted, or reach him through tunnels, which desperate Nihilists never tire of digging. This was ever his dread, for before coming to the throne he had his chin shaved every morning, but since then no razor has touched his face; not a mouthful of food or wine was taken by him until all the dishes set before him were tasted by his butler; the room in which he slept was secured by two immense iron doors, while the windows were provided with heavy bars, so that household enemies may not steal upon him at night. The humblest peasant in all Russia would not exchange places with this unhappy autocrat, whose crown weighed upon him like a besom of death.

CHAPTER IX.

THE cessation of crime which followed the assassination of Alexander II. inspired the law and order class of Russia with the hope that Nihilism had spent its force and would permit the results of that desperate work to determine their purposes. But this hope was soon dispelled, for in the succeeding fall fresh outrages were reported, which were followed by a more retributive or vindictive policy of police surveillance. About the same time there came reports of the most brutal attacks being made upon Jewish merchants in several districts of lower Russia, a description of which will be given hereafter.

Among the more harassing difficulties with which the Government had to deal were the secret printing offices. These breeders of sedition appeared in every large city, and their products were scattered through every hamlet in the nation. When one office was discovered and destroyed another quickly took its place, so that suppression has rather worked against the Government. Many of these offices became the scene of bloody conflicts between the Nihilists and police, in which not a few women took active part, displaying a desperate bravery rarely exhibited by the sex. In fact there has been a heroism manifested by female Nihilists surpassed by no incidents of individual fearlessness in all history.

Vera Zassulitch, whose shot inaugurated terrorism, was the most modest of her sex. In the court room she blushed when she perceived any one staring at her. Eugenia Figner, a charming lady and an accomplished singer, got her eight years in the Siberian mines by sitting in a parlor playing the piano for weary hours, trying to drown the noise made by the secret printing-press

in the adjoining room. Anna Lebedeff, a priest's daughter, in the disguse of the wife of a switchman,

LEADING FEMALE NIHILISTS

lived in a watch-house on the railroad, and was found on a box filled with dynamite, chatting with the switchman. Sophie Perofskaja, the daughter of a general and senator,

who declined the dignity of maid of honor to the Empress and entered the Nihilist fraternity, dug the Moscow mine and directed the Czar's assassination. Sophie Bardin, who was welcomed as a shining star in the literary horizon, wrote a few poems which, though gems of Russian literature, were treasonable, and the singing of them is a State crime.

The Soobotin and Lubatovitch sisters were ladies of many accomplishments and noted also for their beauty and purity, yet they stimulated their male colaborers by many acts of cunning and recklessness. The two former acted as spies, and actually secured from a leading officer all the immediate plans of Gen. Ignatieff for overcoming Nihilism, besides finding out, through a different source, the persons in their party against whom the Government had suspicions. The two latter distributed incendiary literature not only throughout Moscow and St. Petersburg, but in the very offices of the police authorities. Helene Rossikoff planned the robbery of the treasury at Cherson, from the vaults of which were taken 1,500,000 roubles ($750,000) for Nihilistic purposes. Mary Griasnova incited three of her comrades, who were detected conducting a revolutionary organ, to defend their property against an attack made upon them by nearly twenty policemen. In this fight she killed two officers and wounded three others, though she was herself seriously shot and had to fire from a prostrate position. When her companions surrendered she reviled them as cowards, and nothing silenced her but death, which came after a lingering agony of three days. M'lles Torporkoff, Hamkrelidze, Khorjevski, Ivanova, and many other women have signally distinguished themselves among the Nihilists as leaders of great power, while their examples have all served to infuse their confreres with determina-

tion to dare and do without regard for the results which their desperate acts might entail.

On the 28th of February, 1882, the scene of serious

THE BELLIGERENT KREIZER.

disturbance was transferred from St. Petersburg to Odessa, where General Strelnikoff, the Public Prosecutor at the Kieff Military Tribunal, who distinguished himself in various Nihilist trials, was shot in broad daylight on

the Boulevard in that city. Three men were concerned in the murder; two were captured, but the third escaped. The Czar was so angered at the news that he at first ordered the prisoners to be executed within twenty-four hours, but afterward changed his mind and decided that they should be tried in due form. Accordingly they were tried and sentenced to death on Saturday, March 11th. The funeral of General Strelnikoff took place on Sunday morning, March 5th, with full military honors. Curiously enough, this crime happened within a few hours after the commutation by the Czar of the sentence of death passed on the prisoners in the Trigonia trial. One man alone, Soukahnoff, was excepted, owing to his being a lieutenant in the navy. He, however, was spared the disgrace of dying at the hands of the hangman, but was taken to Cronstadt and shot by a detachment of marines.

It is the custom observed by all of Russia's former Emperors to repair to Moscow six months after assuming the title of Czar, and there, in the Royal Chapel, be crowned according to ceremonies prescribed by the Greek Church, for it must be understood that in tradition, though not in fact, the Church is more potential than the Czar. These ceremonies are magnificent beyond description and are participated in by every one who can crowd into the city. They are invariably followed by a season of festivities which frequently last for thirty days.

Owing to apprehensions of an attack being made upon his person if exposed, Alexander III. still wore the crown which he placed upon his own head the day of his father's death. Several notices were semi-officially given at various times to the effect that the coronation services would occur at Moscow, and during my visit to the city, in August, 1882, great preparations were being made for the positively promised event. The Royal Chapel, which

is used upon no other occasion, was being sumptuously decorated, and three hundred Court waiters had just been sent down from St. Petersburg, whose services were expected to be required at the Imperial feast, which was to follow the coronation. In addition to these preparations, made on so grand a scale, the Great Votive church was thrown open for public inspection upon the presentation of permits issued only by the City Metropolitan. This church is used only once during each Czar's reign, these occasions being the day following the coronation, when the Emperor and Empress repair to its sanctuary for blessings of the Church, and where they also listen to a sermon prepared specially for their benefit. This sacred edifice stands upon an elevation commanding a fine view of the city, and is an object of veneration to all Muscovites. With the exception of the Winter Palace there is, perhaps, no building in all Russia that can compare with it in magnificence. It is built of marble taken from the Finland and Siberian quarries, and polished until all its walls, floors and pilasters reflect images like a looking-glass; the dome is covered with gold, and there are many gold and silver candelabras and icons, while in the interior of the dome is a painting of the Trinity involving a marvellous conception. The principal figure measures thirty feet between the out-stretched hands, though the altitude is so great that it appears almost the natural size of a man. There are two chairs reserved for the Emperor and Empress, which are stationary, fronting the chancel, that for both beauty and value exceed the throne chair in St. George's room of the Winter Palace. They are made of ivory-colored marble, most exquisitely enchased with gold flower work, while the seats and cushioned backs are covered with gold plates studded with precious stones forming the national coat of arms.

VIEW OF MOSCOW FROM THE MOSKA BRIDGE.

Every day, for more than a month, the people expected to receive definite announcement of the Emperor's coming, until the shocking news was received instead that a dynamite mine had been discovered beneath the Royal Chapel. This fact immediately dissipated further expectation, and it was then predicted that the coronation would not take place before the following year. No announcement, however, was made by the Government, and preparations continued to be made. During all this time Count Tolstoi was in communication with the Nihilists, who promised to guarantee the safety of the Emperor at the coronation services if he would, previous to the occurrence, publish his annual manifesto granting liberty to certain of their compatriots then in exile or held in the Fortress prison.

Suddenly, without any notice whatsoever, the Czar appeared in Moscow. Before leaving St. Petersburg he had ordered every one off the streets by 12 M., on the night of September 15th. No one understood why such an order was given until the next day, when it was learned that the Emperor had departed by special train at one o'clock, A. M., for Moscow. He also took the precaution to line the rail route with thirty thousand troops, stringing them out so that the men were formed eighty feet apart extending all the way between the two cities, and a pilot engine was run half-a-mile ahead of the Imperial train to report any obstructions which might appear. Thus the Czar made his first trip to the "Holy Mother" (a title long since given to Moscow by devout Muscovites), but it was not for coronation purposes, as many at first supposed. He visited the great exposition then being held, also the Imperial Palace in the Kremlin, but there was a large cordon of soldiers surrounding him wherever he went, besides a special guard with

THE ROYAL CHAPEL, MOSCOW.

bayonets at a "present." After spending four days in Moscow, and giving notice that he would remain one week longer, so as to continue the impression that the coronation would take place, he mysteriously disappeared again and turned up at St. Petersburg. It was two days after his departure before the people learned positively that their Emperor was not in Moscow, or credited the report that the coronation had been postponed.

The fear which possesses Alexander III. has caused a renewal of the agitation first begun during the reign of Catharine II., for a removal of the Imperial Court from St. Petersburg to Moscow, where it remained established once for nearly five hundred years. It is claimed that St. Petersburg is not a representative Russian city, being too cosmopolitan in population, and European in architecture; that it is for these reasons the Nihilists make their headquarters there, so that their communications with foreign emissaries may be more direct. Moscow, on the other hand, is intensely Asiatic in all its characteristics and particularly loyal to the Greek Church. This fact is outwardly indicated by the first sights which strike the visitor upon entering the city, for rising up to immense height, like a beautiful mirage, are hundreds of glittering domes, surmounted by golden crosses, while others counterfeit the blue canopy of heaven. There are no less than four hundred and sixty-six churches, sixty-two monasteries, and over two hundred chapels in Moscow, all of which are sustained in a style of magnificence found nowhere else in the world. These princely edifices, and the pious reverence of her population, have caused Moscow to be called the "Holy City," and so sacred is she regarded that every year long pilgrimages are made by Russian peasant women to pay their devotions and pray before her holy shrines. In this respect

WOMEN ON A PILGRIMAGE TO MOSCOW.

Moscow is to Russians what Mecca is to the Mohammedan world.

It is not a matter for surprise therefore that there is such general desire among the people for the Emperor's removal from European influences, and his complete coalescence with Russian style and ideas as taught by the great Vladimir. Indeed, there is a large party in Russia that would be delighted if there were a wall around the Empire large enough to forever keep out everything European.

In the foregoing history of Nihilism I make no pretense of presenting a complete description of all the outrages perpetrated by this bloody organization, but have rather sought, by presenting the more important acts and crimes of the association, to indicate its strength, coherency and purpose (if it may be said Nihilism has any clearly defined purpose). Anarchists are not generally known to consider cause and effect, but like violent maniacs, strike in obedience to a distracted mind, having the one desire to kill, ruin or subvert. Nihilism has now grown so strong that no one can compute its power; no one can judge of Russia's future, but all may well prophesy, by the clouds which lower so bodingly over the nation, that there is a Nemesis ready to dash out of the elements, with fire and sword, at the Empire's heart.

CHAPTER X.

In the preparation of this work on Nihilism I found many difficulties obtruding upon me from the beginning, which it was wholly impossible to remove or reconcile; these annoyances arose from the extremities of two irreconcilable parties whose sympathies seek favor from all who investigate the insurrectionary causes so seriously disturbing Russia. Having been admitted to Government circles in St. Petersburg, I was sought to be the medium through which the Government might justify its repressive measures and demonstrate the wisdom of its laws; so speciously did one officer of the Ministry present to me the causes and inordinate assumptions of Nihilism that, I must confess, he disposed me favorably to his conclusions, which might have influenced me throughout, in my investigations, but for a later contact with liberals and terrorists. Through an introduction, which it would not be just to explain, I was received confidentially by several leaders in the revolutionary movement, who presented to me their grievances and democratic needs in so forcible, if not convincing a manner, as to materially change the opinions incited in me by the Minister. I therefore found that in any event my work must meet with much disfavor in Russia, if not subject me to the suspicion of preconceived prejudices. This I am very anxious to avoid, and that there may be no real ground for such a charge, in addition to recording my own observations and results of an honest investigation of Nihilism, I herewith present an ably written syllabus of the leading State trials of political offenders that have taken place in Russia during the past five years. The author of this most inter-

esting chapter is a distinguished Russian lady, a resident of St. Petersburg, and one whose liberal ideas recommend her opinions to all thinking people. She belongs to the Liberal Party, but prefers that her name should not be disclosed, for reasons which will readily appear to any one who has read the preceding chapters on Russian Nihilism:

Of all countries in the world, Russia can of late years claim the sad distinction of having produced in greatest numbers the abnormal growths of a deeply convulsed intellectual soil. The well known "Nihilists" (christened by Tourguenieff for all eternity), the boisterous, pugnacious, ranting, yet talented and comparatively harmless boys of twenty and thirty years ago, have been succeeded by another and far more dangerous generation—boys also, most of them, but who have developed the quiet, dogged resolution, the merciless, unswerving sequence of thought and act, the unreasoning self-sacrifice which lies at the core of the Russian nature when powerfully aroused. The earlier ones contented themselves with general fault-finding (in many cases with but too much reason), with noisy denunciations of everything and everybody, from existing social principles to poetry and ladies' fancy-work, with sweeping and often ludicrously absurd negations of all that is not positive science or material improvement. Not so the latter, the so-called "socialists"—for that name begins very generally to supersede the old one. Their predecessors' much-aired grievances, instead of evaporating in more or less violent talk, have with them settled into a dark purpose, which they pursue literally to the death—to their own death most frequently, sometimes also to that of their selected victims. They take the risk and pay the forfeit manfully, stubbornly. The many criminal State-trials of the

last five years have amply shown that Russia has been visited by a virulent paroxysm of that form of political aberration which made so great a patriot and so pure a man as Mazzini an advocate of political murder, and armed the gentle hand of the romantic, tender-souled boy Sand with the assassin's dagger. On the 16th of November, 1880, the execution of two important leaders of the deadly secret organization called "the terrorizing fraction" atoned for the long series of murderous attempts against the Emperor's person which followed the assassination of Prince Krapotkin in February, 1879.

The trial which preceded, conducted before the St. Petersburg Military Court, was on so unusually large a scale, involved so many points and persons, and resulted in such vast and important revelations, that an account of the judicial proceedings on this momentous occasion may prove not uninteresting to American readers, and may shed light on some of the questions concerning which the intelligent curiosity of the cultivated public of this country (Russia) has long been awakened.

On the 6th of November sixteen persons were brought to trial for heavy political offenses before the St. Petersburg Military Court. Great and unusual precautions had been taken to insure an undisturbed course to the judicial proceedings. The general public were not admitted; tickets were distributed; and it was noticed by an eye-witness that although the audience was so numerous as to fill the hall, it was composed of persons wearing the military or civil uniform, there being present only four persons in the ordinary garb of private gentlemen. Although the reporters of the press were admitted, the several dailies and weeklies had been notified to abstain from publishing their own reports from shorthand notes as is usual in such cases, and to limit themselves to copying the full-length report

which would appear in a series of numbers of the daily "Government Gazette." The sixteen prisoners entered the court escorted each by two *gensdarmes*, and took their places in a calm and dignified manner. In spite of great differences in their social rank, education, even race and religion, one characteristic feature was common to all—they were very young; all, with one exception, under thirty, one-half under twenty-five. There were three women in the number—girls of twenty-one, twenty-two, and twenty-three years of age. The single exception was one Mr. Drigo, aged thirty-one, a landholder and business man of good standing, who was merely an accessory to the revolutionary party with regard to certain money matters. From the personal facts and antecedents concerning the prisoners, given in curt and dry phrase by the Act of Accusation, it appears that of the thirteen men one was a Catholic, of Polish family settled in Little Russia, and two were Israelites; that two never received any education at all, and seven did not complete their education, but left the University, or the Technological Institute, or Teachers' Seminary, or other schools or colleges, in the first, second, or third year of the course. Alexander Kviatkovsky, aged twenty-seven, the most prominent among the prisoners, was one of these; but he must have been endowed with great natural parts and moral powers. From the first moment the general attention was centered on him, and his personal appearance is thus described by the correspondent of the *Augusburger Zeitung:* "Kviatkovsky has a very intelligent face; long dark-blonde hair and a full beard frame a set of features expressive of great energy and power of will. He both bears himself and speaks well and with ease." He immediately and naturally assumed the attitude of a leader among his companions—a posi-

tion which they all seemed tacitly to acknowledge, as though from long and habitual deference, and to which he was fully entitled, as proven by disclosures at the trial. It was remarked that although he appeared to have surrendered himself from the first, and with the utmost philosophy, to a fate against which he knew that not the ablest defence could prevail, he was unremittingly anxious to shield his followers, and never missed an opportunity of taking the whole blame upon himself and exonerating them from this or that charge, on the ground of having been used by him as blind tools, and kept in ignorance of his purposes.

The first day of the trial was almost entirely consumed by the reading of the Act of Accusation. That this document should have grown to so unusual a bulk is not to be wondered at, since it covered a space of two years, and contained a detailed relation of all the criminal acts perpetrated in that interval by members of the ultra-socialistic party, in which all prisoners then present at the bar had directly and personally participated. The Act was divided under ten different heads, comprising the following offences: Participation in the murder of Prince Krapotkin, the Governor of Kharkoff, in February, 1879; in Solovieff's attempt on the Emperor's life in April of the same year; in the socialistic-revolutionary convention which took place at Lipetsk in the following June, and at which the subsequent attempts were planned, it being at the same time resolved to use dynamite instead of ordinary weapons; in the ensuing threefold murderous attempt in November, 1879, by means of dynamite mines laid under railway tracks at three different places, of which one proved useless as his Majesty changed his route at the last moment, another took no effect from unknown causes, probably unskilful management, and the

third did by its explosion cause the destruction of the Imperial train, but did not endanger the Emperor's person, owing to his having passed the spot a few moments before in an ordinary train; in the laying of a powerful dynamite mine under one of the apartments in the Winter Palace, resulting in the terrible explosion of the 17th of February, 1880, which caused the loss of eleven lives, and more or less severely injured fifty-six persons. Furthermore, several of the prisoners were accused of organizing and entertaining an active secret press in the capital, for the purpose of printing and spreading abroad revolutionary proclamations, flying numbers of seditious and terroristic papers, as also of forging passports and other documents; the same prisoners being moreover accused of having offered armed resistance to the police, who surprised them in their hiding-place with the press in full activity. The prisoner Presniakoff was charged besides with having fired at two persons who aided a disguised policeman in arresting him on one of the public streets, wounding both and causing the death of one. Lastly, all the prisoners were "accused of belonging to the secret society of the socialistic-revolutionary party, whose object is, by sedition and violence, to subvert the State institutions and social order, and which has manifested its existence by a long series of the heaviest political offences." They were also all charged, with three exceptions, with having lived under numerous assumed names, supporting their aliases by forged passports and other documents; while the prisoner Drigo was accused of having supplied the socialistic-revolutionary party with the funds necessary for carrying out their very expensive undertakings and machinations.

The question of funds is one which has considerably puzzled public curiosity. People cannot carry on costly

mining-works in different parts of the country and secret publishing on a large scale, travel at the shortest notice from end to end of so vast an empire, hire and buy houses to conspire and work in, and maintain a large number of subaltern agents, mostly needy young men, who in devoting their time and energies to "the work" give up their only chance of earning even a precarious livelihood,—people cannot do all this without spending large sums of money; and where does the money come from?—for it is a curious but well-established fact, that men as a rule are more lavish of their lives than of their purses. The accusation against Mr. Drigo answers this question very fully and very strikingly; and as he pleaded guilty, with only a distinction of degree in the offense, and his case, therefore, presented no difficulty or complication, it may as well be disposed of now, at this early stage of the proceedings.

Though there may have been small contributions for revolutionary purposes from the less needy members of the party, it is now proved that the great bulk of the expended funds were derived from the private fortune of Demitri Lizogoub, a prominent leader executed in August, 1879. This gentleman, judging from no other data but those supplied by the Act of Accusation, the speech of the counsel for the Crown, and the few simple remarks offered by Drigo in his own defence, appears to have been by no means an ordinary character. Having early come into an inheritance consisting of landed property to the amount of something over one hundred and eighty-seven thousand roubles (exactly half of that sum in dollars, at the present low rate of exchange), as was testified by his brothers at his trial, he immediately began quietly to turn every acre into money, which he consistently applied to the uses of "the party," limiting his

personal expenditure to the trifling sum of five hundred roubles a year. He evidently looked on his wealth as a sacred deposit, of which he was but the steward, in conscience bound to husband it for the furtherance of "the good cause," allotting to himself only the merest pittance necessary for actually supporting life. So thoroughly did he carry out his sternly-planned self-denial, that at the time of his death barely thirty thousand roubles could be found of his considerable patrimony. Repeatedly implicated in political machinations, and once already placed under temporary arrest, Lizogoub found it unsafe to remit the required sums directly and in his own person to the respective agents, as also to attend himself to the final liquidation of his still remaining estates,—a measure which became doubly urgent after he was again and definitely arrested in 1878. Some time before this event, he had placed his entire fortune, by means of full powers of attorney, in the hands of his neighbor and early friend, Vladimir Drigo, and used to give him private directions as to the payment of more or less considerable sums, from one hundred roubles to one thousand and upward, and at different times to sundry individuals who proved to be revolutionary agents of the deepest dye. Even from his prison in Odessa Lizogoub managed, by contrivances which have not been found out to this day, and which seem to imply connivance from quarters where such would least be looked for, to keep up an active correspondence in short notes with his political friends and Drigo, who continued to carry out his orders with respect to further payments out of his property. One of these notes, bearing the postscript, pathetic in its simplicity, "*I trust you*," came into the hands of justice, and was shown to Lizogoub's two brothers, who recognized it as being in their brother Demitri's hand-

writing. Drigo meanwhile, urged by his friendship for the prisoner, worked hard and anxiously to accomplish the final liquidation,—partly by effecting sales in his own name, partly by transferring large sums into his own hands and those of other trusty friends, as the only way of securing means of existence to Lizogoub in the future, no more tragical issue of his trial being at first anticipated than a rigorous banishment. But a judicial sentence is usually accompanied by degradation; that is to say, the condemned person is stripped of his rank and all civil rights and privileges thereto pertaining, and disabled from holding property, which, if he is in possession of any, is either confiscated to the Crown or passes to his heirs as though he were dead, as the sentence may be. The most ordinary mode of eluding this severe clause, which would leave a condemned prisoner penniless, is by fictitious mortgages and bills, the friendly holders of which foreclose at a given moment, and thus rescue the prisoner's real estate or movables from the law, and either apply the income to his needs, or, by liquidation, secure for him a capital. This operation Drigo was anxious to accomplish in Lizogoub's behalf, but the fatal termination of his friend's career rendered further efforts unnecessary; and, besides, not much of the fortune was left, as has been seen. From the moment of Lizogoub's death, Drigo's connection with "the party" entirely ceased, and none of its members received from him any more pecuniary assistance. The latter fact was duly noticed in the Act of Accusation as an extenuating circumstance. He was only charged with having supplied certain persons with funds, not his own indeed, but which he knew would be used for illegal purposes. The case against him was very fairly stated thus: "The person who gave the money might be ignorant of the meditated

crimes for the perpetration of which it was raised, but it could not be unknown to him that the supplies which passed through his hands were destined for revolutionary purposes." Drigo did not deny the fact of having paid sums of money to sundry persons, strangers to him, by Lizogoub's order; but pleaded that, placed as he was, he could not act differently; nor did he admit having any knowledge whatever of their illegal character. He absolutely denied ever having belonged to the revolutionary party himself, a denial borne out by his antecedents, which showed him to have been a model landlord, looked up to by all his neighbors, and never implicated in any political troubles before he consented to take on himself the full management of Lizogoub's property. "I was guided in my actions solely by my friendship to Lizogoub; and if friendship constitutes a political offense, in that case I must plead guilty." With these simple words he closed his brief defence. The sentence passed against Drigo was, in consideration of his exceptional position and honorable character, as mild as could be expected,—degradation and simple banishment to the Government of Tomsk, in Western Siberia.

When, after the Act of Accusation had been read, the prisoners were asked in the usual form whether they pleaded guilty or not guilty, they did not attempt unavailing denial; all, with one exception, pleaded guilty in the main, but with certain qualifications and more or less nice distinctions as to details, shadings of opinion or intention. Some, while avowing that they belonged to the socialistic-revolutionary party, denied all connection with that fraction of it which advocated terrorization. One said: "I admit that I am a socialist, but I am not a revolutionist." Kviatkovsky and one other allowed that they had taken part in the socialistic convention at Lipetsk,

but would not concede that the ensuing attempts gainst the Czar's person had been there resolved upon, except theoretically and conditionally: "Should certain contingencies take place, it was to be done; should they not, it might be left undone." "It was decided," explained his companion, "to repeat the attempts, should the Government persist in the line of conduct it had pursued towards the 'party' and the people. But the Convention did not discuss the questions as to *how* it was to be done, by whom, and under what circumstances; so there was no talk of mining and dynamite."

At the preliminary examinations the prisoners had made confessions even more ample than they appeared willing to indorse before the court. They may have been advised by their counsel not to criminate themselves unwarily, nor to make unnecessary admissions. Still, on the whole, denial was certainly not the line of defence which they adopted. Among the witnesses who would be summoned to confront them they knew that *one* was to be brought forward whose deposition would be evidence most damning and conclusive against them—a witness from the dead as it were, and one of their own number. Goldenberg, an Israelite aged twenty-four, the murderer of Prince Krapotkin, did not take his place on the prisoners' benches with his sixteen companions, being shortly reported in the Act of Accusation to "have died in the fortress, on the 29th of July, 1880." His act and his fate are not the least striking feature of this extraordinary trial. He wrote and signed a relation, most full and elaborate, not only of his own doings in the service of the revolutionary party, but of all those of his fellow-conspirators in which he had borne a part, or of which he had a knowledge; he laid bare all that was known to him of the secret central organization called

"the directing and the executive committees;" he left out no detail, no name. Then—he committed suicide! Were it not for this last circumstance he would stand branded as the blackest of traitors, and we should be disposed to yield but scanty credence or sympathy to the long preface in which he expounds his motives and aims, even though it contains much weighty reasoning, much deep, apparently genuine feeling awakened by the sorrowful retrospect and gloomy anticipations natural to a spirit sobered by long confinement. As it is, we may at least suspend our judgment, give the unfortunate youth credit for sincerity, and wish that the sad reflections wrung from him by suffering and despondency should gain ground among his former associates, who would possibly cease from their murderous machinations with very weariness, if they could but once become convinced that by persisting in them they only disgrace and undo the cause which they seek to uphold.

Goldenberg begins by professing himself a member not only of the socialistic-revolutionary party, but of that fraction of the same which under the denomination of "disorganizers" or "terrorists" has undertaken to subvert the whole now subsisting order of things, and to compel the Government, by sheer force of intimidation, to desist from its entire political course, and especially the repressive measures which it has long pursued against such of the association as fell into its hands. "I am an advocate of political murders," he adds, "in so far as they are substitutes for free speech, as they undermine the public confidence in the government and its organization, and as a given agent of the government has deserved his doom—that is, in so far as he is obnoxious to the socialistic party." Then, after touching shortly on the grounds which made him proclaim himself the assassin of Prince Krapotkin, he goes on:

"A long interval of time has elapsed since then. . . . . Solitary confinement, like every evil thing in the world, has its good side, which consists in enabling a man to think, and think freely, unhindered and unswayed by the course of events. I have done so, and found that after traveling so arduous and bloody a road nothing is done anywhere; not among the people, not among society, not among the youth of the land, and that the struggle still continues—a most wearing struggle: men perish, and perish without end, in dungeons, in Eastern Siberia, lastly on gibbets. I especially centered my thoughts on the proceedings of the terrorists, and came to the conclusion that they had entered on a mistaken course; that while they strive with their whole souls, with all their might, for the most natural and undoubted human right—that of political liberty—they have not chosen the right means to attain it. I found that political murders not only had not brought us nearer to that better state of things for which we all long, but had on the contrary made it incumbent on the Government to take extreme measures against us; that it is owing to that same theory of political murder we have had the misfortune of seeing twenty gibbets raised in our midst, and that to it we are indebted for the dreadful reaction which lies with crushing weight on all alike. I reflected that the socialists ought to have known and remembered that the Government is able to put forth the same means, but with an amount of might which must destroy all that crosses its path. . . . Such were some of the cheerless conclusions to which I came after much thinking. Of course, I might have persisted in my former convictions. I might have gone on leading men to death, and have calmly died myself on the gibbet, had I known that I should be the final expiatory victim, that my death would close this sad and horrible period of our social development. But the thought that my death-sentence would not be the last, that more would follow and inevitably call forth new reprisals, which in their turn would be visited on the party by still severer measures, and thus the number of the victims would go on increasing, until the Government would after all come out victor from the unequal conflict, from which it never can desist as long as the entire move ment is not put down—this thought filled me with inexpressible dread. . . . I stand aghast at the certainty that persecution must at last overcome, suppress for a long time, the general active stir so healthful in itself in favor of political reform, and that we shall then bitterly regret having manifested our activity in so harsh a form as to drag to perdition numbers of unheeded victims."

There is nothing in all this that the most earnest, upright lover of his country could not endorse; no sound head, no feeling heart, but must deplore with the solitary, brooding prisoner the fatal excesses which he denounces, and wish that all his associates might come to the same tardy, dearly-bought insight. Can we refuse him our

sympathy when he expresses a passionate desire "to put an end to all these evils, to assist in bringing about a speedy transition to another and better state of things, to save many from the death-sentence impending over them?" But when he tells us *by what means* he intends to achieve all this, we look at each other in puzzled bewilderment: can he seriously think he will save his friends by turning informer against them? Does he blind himself to the ugly word by the pompous phraseology in which he clothes it?

"I have nerved myself to a most dire and terrible act; I have resolved to employ a remedy which makes my veins throb painfully, and my eyes overflow with burning tears. I have resolved to repress within myself all feeling of either enmity or affection, and to perform another great act of self-denial for the good of our young men, of our society, of our beloved Russia. I have resolved to lay open the entire organization, all that is known to me, as a preventive against the dreadful future which awaits us, against a whole series of executions and other repressive measures."

It would certainly be a satisfaction to be quite sure that the converted terrorist meant well, and if he did commit suicide after completing his revelation there would be little doubt of his sincerity. Still, the connection between the end which he proposes to himself and the means which he takes towards it is very difficult to establish—so much so that there have not been wanting sceptics who entirely disbelieved in his death, and considered the report only as a clever *mise en scene* to avoid his personal appearance in the witness-box and a possible reaction of feeling, or simply to shield him from the vengeance of the betrayed. I have heard many persons says:

"Goldenberg is fast becoming the hero of a cycle of legends. . . . Some believe he is not dead at all, but is only kept in concealment; and that he suffered himself to be moved to a full confession by the promise of a very large sum of money and impunity. Many persons in the best circles share the belief that he is alive."

Yet his suicide was formally announced in the *Narodnaya Volia*, the secret revolutionary organ.

Meanwhile, and whatever be the true solution of this obscure and distressing point, Goldenberg's deposition, which occupies a great many newspaper columns, is one of the most extraordinary, the most thrilling documents which it is possible to read. Not the most exciting memoirs penned by a gifted hand in stirring times, not those of Cellini himself, can surpass in fascination this unadorned, unimpassioned narrative. We need only follow its consecutive statements, but slightly commented on or corrected in the subsequent answers of the prisoners, the final speeches for the accusation or the defence, to see the whole strange drama enacted before our eyes, appalling in its very homeliness and in its utterly commonplace details. The whole thing looks so familiar and at the same time so wildly unreal, that we are tempted to rub our eyes and ask, where are we? Are these things done in the latter quarter of the nineteenth century? Are these the men—the boys—whom we have sympathized with and soothed in their grievances, their aspirations, their alternations of despondency or exaltation?

Here is a circle of young people, with nice, homelike names, gathered round a tea-table with its hissing *samovar*—a scene which every Russian woman has presided over a hundred times. The young men are mostly students of the universities of Kieff or Kharkoff; the girls belong to the same class of unquiet spirits. They talk much and loudly, their animated gestures and excited faces show that they are discussing one of those burning *questions du jour* which in a certain circle turn every social gathering into a pandemonium on a small scale, where through dense clouds of cheap cigarette-smoke eyes flash, arms are flourished, voices ring, sharply iso-

lated or blended into a general din; where there is everybody to speak and no one to listen. We all have assisted at some of these unparliamentary debates, where the newly-brewed thought revels in ungovernable fermentation. But hark! the theme is somewhat startling: it is a question of life or death which is being canvassed. Judgment is being passed on the governor, Prince Krapotkin, whose brutal ill-treatment of the students—both at their last mass-meeting, when a troop of Cossacks rode into the midst of them plying their *nagaikas* (horsewhips) right and left, and later in the prison to which many were summarily consigned—calls for retaliation. And now a newly-arrived guest addresses the circle, and is listened to as one whose word claims authority. Goldenberg writes:

"I wished to alleviate the lot of the prisoners, and also to take vengeance on Prince Krapotkin, as the cause of their sufferings. I came to the conclusion that the best means to compass both these ends would be to kill him, as a sure way to turn the attention of both Government and public to the fate of political prisoners in general. . . . I did not at once declare my own determination to do the deed, but only expressed my opinion that such a measure ought to be taken against him—an opinion to which all responded approvingly. There was much discussion concerning the manner in which it should be done, so as more forcibly to influence the public. I and two others (one a woman) were for an open act, but the majority were in favor of secret assassination. . . . The question was decided in this sense, much against my earnest wish."

This was in the last days of December, 1878. From that time to the 21st of February following Goldenberg, faithfully aided by a crowd of associates—some of whom he knew only under their assumed names, since one and all they lived with forged or borrowed passports—coolly prepared the execution of the decree. Not less than twenty persons are named as having in different ways assisted him. One of them, Goldenberg's inseparable attendant, entreated his friend to yield to him the honor

of the execution; "but I told him and Zoubkavsky that I would shoot the man who should interfere with me and kill the prince in my stead." This young zealot was Kobyliansky, one of "the sixteen," then not quite twenty. "The little Pole," as he was called with some degree of contemptuous pity, afterward boasted to friends at a distance from Kharkoff that *he* was the murderer, but at the trial denied having even had any knowledge of the contemplated deed, and altogether was the only one of the party who bore himself in a way which showed him to be a poor feeble-minded creature. The two conspirators dogged the Governor for weeks, and more than one opportunity was missed; one day a fog made it too uncertain to fire, another day the distance was too great; one evening they met him in the theatre, "but he was with his wife and daughter, and they did not wish to endanger them." At length, on the 21st of February, as Prince Krapotkin was returning home alone between nine and ten at night, Goldenberg, who was pacing the sidewalk before his house, ran up to the carriage, fired a well-aimed shot through the open window, and disappeared in the darkness. Favored by the night and watched over by friends, he had no difficulty in escaping from the city. The death of the victim ensued only a week later.

The scene changes to St. Petersburg. We find there Goldenberg, safe and undaunted, busily planning a more terrible sequel to his first successful crime, and surrounded by a numerous set of new acquaintances and associates, of whom he distinctly states that he did not know the real name of one. "The little Pole" still hovers admiringly round him, with unabated ardor. But his most constant companion is a young man lately ar-

rived from a distant province, with a deep-set purpose in his heart. The three frequently visited together a shooting-gallery, where the new-comer assiduously practised his eye and hand. What his purpose was did not long remain a secret. At a meeting held with amazing recklessness, almost openly and within general hearing, at a much-frequented tavern in one of the most crowded streets, that purpose was declared and discussed. The question propounded was the expediency of a decisive attempt on the Czar's life, to be undertaken by a man of strong nerve and unswerving resolution. There was no lack of volunteers. Goldenberg coolly proposed himself, on the ground that he had been tried and had nothing to lose,—his life being already forfeited by reason of one murder. His offer was rejected on account of his Hebrew nationality and religion, for fear that so desperate a deed might throw too great an odium on his entire race, since Christian communities have ever been but too prone to hold it collectively responsible for offences committed by individuals belonging to it. "The little Pole," baffled in his ambition at Kharkoff, was anxious to obtain the far higher distinction of laying low so much more exalted a head. But he was set aside at once as entirely unfit for so responsible and terrible a mission. His being a Pole was judged a sufficient objection, since the conspirators did not wish the regicide to be attributed to national animosity. None but a Russian hand should be raised against the head of the Russian people, that the world, well aware how deeply the almost religious feeling of loyalty is rooted in every Russian breast, might from the enormity of the deed judge of the magnitude of the provocation and the deadliness of the resolve. These youthful enthusiasts seem to have approached this culminating

act of their political creed with a certain degree of awe, somewhat in the spirit of Brutus :—

> "Let us be sacrificers, but not butchers. . . .
> Alas!
> Cæsar must bleed for it! And, gentle friends,
> Let's kill him boldly, not wrathfully. . . .
> This shall make
> Our purpose necessary and not envious,
> Which, so appearing to the common eyes,
> We shall be called purgers, not murderers."

At last Solovieff, the new arrival, declared the debate useless, since he was determined to strike the blow himself, whether empowered to it or not, having come from Saratoff for no other purpose. He added that this resolve had originated in his mind independently of any instigation, and that he would yield the execution to no other person; that should "the party" decide to adjourn or forego it, he would separate himself from them and act on his own responsibility. "It was his *idee fixe*," said Kviatkovsky, when questioned on the subject. Nothing now remained but to settle questions of preliminaries and details, of which the most urgent was to give secret warning to "the illegal parties"—as they are expressively named from the fact of their living *illegally* under assumed names and with false papers—to leave the city at once, so as to involve as few persons as possible in the coming catastrophe. It is well known that the meditated attempt was committed by Solovieff on the 14th of April; that he failed, and paid for his fanaticism with his life.

But by far the most thrilling pages in Goldenberg's narrative are those in which he describes, with the life-like vividness of an eyewitness, the mining of the railway track on the outskirts of Moscow, which ended in the explosion of the 1st of December. At the convention

held by the leaders of the socialistic party at Lipetsk in the preceding June, and whose doings and resolutions deserve a separate paragraph, the regicide question had been amply discussed. It was settled in the affirmative. Whether only "theoretically and conditionally" or in a definite form, as to time and place, ways and means, is of no material importance. Enough that very soon after the convention separated, several of its most prominent members, with a dogged stubbornness of purpose and an almost incredible recklessness of danger and detection, set to work to carry out the very elaborate preparations for a great final and, as they confidently imagined, unerring *coup*. The revolver was discarded for a surer and even more deadly agent—dynamite. A sufficient quantity—three *pouds*, about one hundred and twenty pounds —was secretly manufactured in St. Petersburg and sent off to Moscow under the care of two passengers who took it as a favor with their own luggage, never suspecting that the box labelled "Crockery" contained anything else, and on arriving in Moscow left it, as directed, in the luggage-room "till called for" by the person to whom they had been requested to hand over the check. Three pouds more were taken to Kharkoff by two of the conspirators, who carried it simply in their trunk. This trunk they kept for some time at their hotel, then had it conveyed first to the lodgings of a student, and lastly to those of a lady friend, both of whom belonged to "the party," yet were not informed of the contents of the trunk, part of which was afterward carried as ignorantly by a third person to Odessa, and there safely received. That no accident should ever have happened in all these peregrinations seems almost miraculous. But the manufacturing and transporting of dynamite was the least part of the undertaking. Much the most difficult task was

the long and wearisome mining process, the difficulty being greatly increased by the inexperience of the laborers, the scarcity and imperfection of the tools, and the necessity of submitting to countless discomforts in order to preserve the silence and outward tranquillity indispensable to avoid a detection always imminent at the best. Nor would it have been possible to achieve even the preliminaries without the assistance of the female associates, an assistance which was rendered with unremitting cheerfulness, unflagging presence of mind, and absolute self-devotion. Goldenberg shared for a time the exciting life and labors of his Moscow friends. And if, as is averred, some of them had been drawn into the current of sedition and conspiracy mainly by a certain adventurous restlessness of spirit, a craving for release from the tame routine of modern life; surely they must have been amply satisfied. Such a state of constant alarm, perpetual watchfulness, hair-breadth escapes, familiarity with peril even to the blunting of the keen-edged sense of danger, is just what we look for in one of Cooper's Indian stories or a Highland tale, but is infinitely startling in the midst of a modern, orderly, civilized community.

Thoroughly and cunningly had the enterprise been devised to the smallest details. A house situated in close vicinity to the track had been purchased under the name of one of the conspirators—assumed of course—who settled in it with one of the young women who shared the secret and gave herself out as his wife, and a few companions, male and female. Several more took possession of furnished lodgings hired in the city itself by another such fictitious couple, who used to come over for the day. The house was too small to accommodate permanently so many inmates. Besides, it was deemed advisable not to affront the wondering gossip of a prying neighbor-

hood, which would infallibly have been started on the right scent by such an overcrowding of narrow quarters. The city-lodgings, moreover, were to facilitate communications, and, in case of need, to favor concealment and flight. The direction of the work was entrusted to the nominal owner of the house, known under the nickname of "the Alchemist." A subterranean gallery had to be conducted to the track, passing under the embankment. One or more openings were to be bored through the track itself, and iron pipes containing dynamite were to be inserted into the holes. The distance was somewhat longer and the labor rather harder than had been anticipated. The sides and roof of the gallery, dug in the soft earth by hand and shovel, were prevented from falling in by boards, which were placed triangularly, tent-wise—a piece of work which necessitated a most uncomfortable twist of the body, since in no place was there sufficient height to stand up. The whole stock of tools consisted of two shovels and a sort of scoop, like tha used by grocers, to smooth the sides of the gallery before placing the boards; the auger or borer and the pipes lay in readiness—they had been ordered in Moscow, the workmen of course being ignorant of their destination. The auger was afterward sent to St. Petersburg, where it turned up in the secret printing office and served as one of the most convincing items of evidence. The earth was taken out on sheets of tin plate, provided with casters and running on rails—an ingenious contrivance of "the Alchemist." Each load was brought under the hatch or shaft cut in one of the rooms on the ground-floor, and raised by means of ropes, worked from above by a species of roughly constructed windlass. The greatest difficulty was how to dispose of the earth and rubbish. At first it was spread out and smoothly trodden down in the

yard; then they began to fill the cellar with it, and lastly took to shovelling it into the larder on the ground floor, which at one time was crammed so tightly that the walls gave way, and boards began to fall out of them. Difficulties increased as the work advanced. A wooden post on which they stumbled gave them very much trouble. Stones greatly obstructed their advance as they neared the embankment. In one place water oozed through the top of the vault and threatened an inundation, so that it had to be pumped out; and once the work was interrupted for two days. Lastly, and in spite of ventilation-pipes laid in every convenient place, the air grew more and more oppressive and scarce, not to mention the danger of being buried under crumbling masses of earth—a danger which became so great that "the Alchemist" always carried poison about him, to insure himself a prompt and painless death, should the expected catastrophe really come to pass. The fatigue, the hardship, and the suffering must have been terrible to men for the most part unused to manual labor. Yet this seditious household seems to have been by no means a gloomy one. Its members were united; the self-imposed duties were discharged with enthusiastic emulation. Only one proved "a wretched workman, and so lazy that he was discarded;" another was in bad health, and for that reason was sent off on some easier errand, not without taking with him a small stone from the gallery "as a keepsake." One of the youngest members, though miserably ill all the while, and probably consumptive, was the most indefatigable laborer of all. His deep conviction of working for the good of his country supported him through hardship and pain. But even aside from the ultimate object, the well-known beneficent, exhilarating power of *work*, the actual process of labor in itself, independently of

every association or ambition, must have made itself felt in heightened pulse and genial flow of spirits. These fanatical young miners must often have rejoiced at some obstacle overcome by patience, at some success achieved

POLICE SURVEILLANCE.

under difficulties by some simple but clever contrivance, at some gossip outwitted, without reflecting at every instant that the result for which they strained nerve and brain was to be death to many, and in all probability to themselves. There is a freshness and cheeriness about this

part of Goldenberg's relation which is very pathetic when contrasted with the circumstances under which he wrote. He dwells on little incidents of no importance whatever with respect to the momentous facts of which he treats, but full of interest and dramatic vividness, as if even in the dreary, hopeless solitude of his prison cell he still enjoyed the whiff of life and liberty wafted into his living grave by the retrospect of those days of lawlessness and danger, but also of daring and enthusiasm. He writes:

"We worked very assiduously, beginning generally about six in the morning; by eight we usually had placed one pair of boards, when we came in to tea. We then worked on till two, our dinner hour; took a short rest, and worked again till ten. . . . I remember that once, during the first days of my stay, the former owner of the house, Anna Trofimoff, came in to get some sweet meats which she had left in the larder. This happened in the morning, and she was met by Hartmann, as the rest were all underground. Mariana Semiovna [the lady who played housekeeper to the party], being aware that the larder was choke full of earth so that several boards had burst out of the sides—a state of things which could not fail to excite the visitor's attention—professed to have lost the key, and so kept her away from it. Another morning Anna Trofimoff came in with a relative of hers, to take away some other things. At that very moment Mariana Semiovna was approaching the house with her marketing. We did not wish her to be met by Anna Trofimoff, who might have noticed the large quantity of her purchases, so we rapped on the window and signed to her not to come nearer; she understood us and retired. She was quite equal at any time to take care of herself and us. Thus once, when Anna Trofimoff's servant Mary came in and made some remarks which caused us to feel uncomfortable, Mariana began to talk of her housekeeping, and how the cat had drunk all the milk, and so turned off the conversation. . . . I also remember that Hartmann once forgot to shut and lock the door of the kitchen, where we had cut the hatch. Next morning an old man came, whose name I do not remember, but who used to live in the house before it was sold, and, on entering, remonstrated with Hartmann on the imprudence of leaving the door open. We were in the next room, and hearing this were greatly frightened, lest the old man might have noticed our work: but he had not."

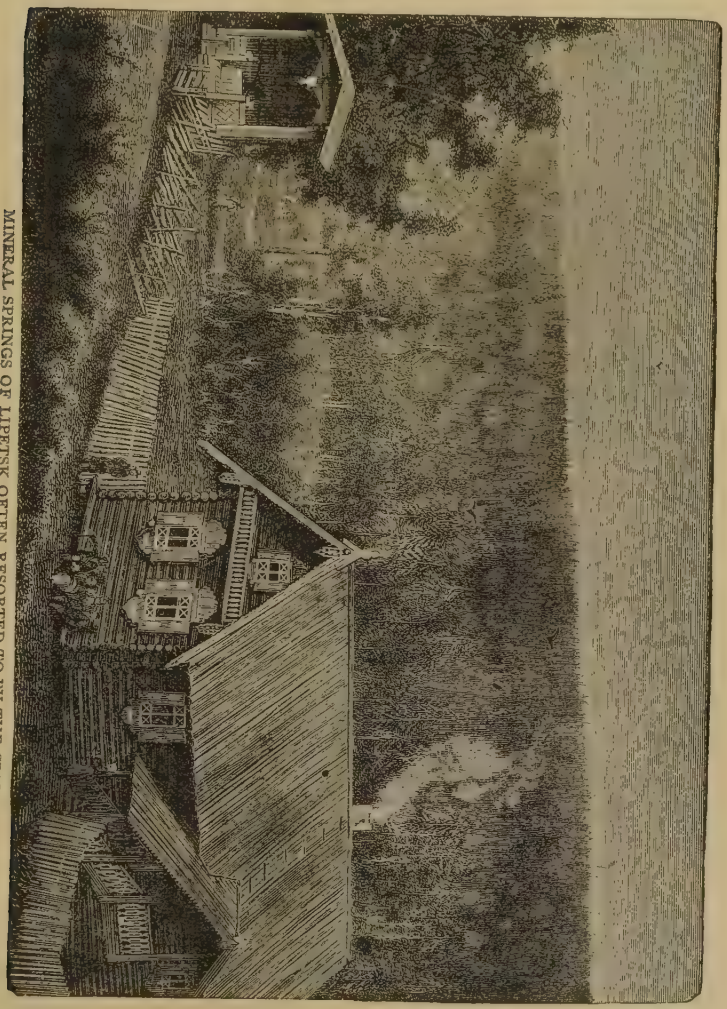
The women shared the household duties with as much eagerness and good-will as the men jointly pursued their

underground work. Nor was their assistance limited to this humbler sphere. When the day and hour of the Emperor's passage was announced in the papers, and the *roles* had to be finally distributed for the closing scene, it was Sophia Perovsky who was ordered to stand on the track, watch for the train, and give the signal by waving her handkerchief. "She was greatly pleased," says Goldenberg, "that this duty had devolved upon her, and repeatedly told me that she considered herself fortunate." Meanwhile it was known that the police hovered alarmingly in the neighborhood, as they always do around every railway station on the imperial itinerary; and it was unanimously resolved, in case of surprise, to blow up the house, but on no account to surrender alive. From that moment Sophia Perovsky or another continually mounted guard with cocked revolver in the room where the dynamite was kept in two large bottles under a bed, ready at any moment to fire into it.

Shakespeare might have dramatized this sketch; but could he have improved it?

Lipetsk is a small and rather insignificant town midway between Moscow and Kharkoff, in the Government of Tamboff. It glories in some springs of very mild mineral waters, which in the short midsummer season, with the orthodox accompaniment of noisy bands of music and noisier *casino*, attract considerable crowds of doubtful refinement, representatives of the second-hand world of fashion, when the place flares up for a few weeks into a sort of hectic, fictitious life. It was here that Kviatkovsky, Goldenberg, and their friends, after the failure of the 14th of April, met by previous appointment toward the end of June, openly, in the public gardens, mindful of the fact that privacy is nowhere more undisturbed than in a throng, and that it is safest

to talk secrets with doors wide open. These desultory meetings and preliminary conferences went on for some



MINERAL SPRINGS OF LIPETSK OFTEN RESORTED TO BY THE CZAR.

days, until all the leaders, convoked from different parts of the empire, were assembled. Then, when the serious

business had to be attacked, it was deemed advisable to adjourn to more secluded spots, and the party used to saunter singly, or in small groups, into a neighboring wood, or to row themselves across the river, and hold their *seance* in an open meadow. The points to be discussed and resolved upon were all-important: they were the expediency of renewed attempts against the Czar's life at no distant period, and the urgency of giving the party "a stronger, more compact organization." Goldenberg says:

"The first of these points was readily disposed of. I and several others spoke in favor of a prompt execution of the intended regicide, in order quickly to convince the Government that harsh measures would not put a stop to the movement directed against it, and that therefore it would have to make concessions. . . . I moreover moved the assassination of the Governors-General of Odessa, Kieff, and St. Petersburg, though, of course, only in case that it should not interfere with the regicide, which was to be our first and principal object."

It is especially impressive and painfully significant to find these sanguinary measures countenanced by a young man, Goldenberg's particular friend, whom he expressly mentions as "one of the gentlest and most humane of men, held in profound esteem by the entire revolutionary party, although he belonged to one special faction of it. I should remark," he adds, "that he was not very favorably inclined to the terrorizing system, and had but lately joined it, moved solely by a revengeful and embittered feeling against the Government in consequence of a long series of cruel persecutions, which had impressed him the more deeply that some of those who had suffered death had been his associates and friends."

Little contradiction, then, was encountered by the resolution decreeing a further continuance of the "terrorizing system." The difficulties of the organization

question were much greater. It was, indeed, a complicated question, at least practically; for in theory all had long felt the absolute necessity of greater unity, of more concerted action. The different fractions of the socialistic or revolutionary party, distinguished by various shadings of opinion not merely as to the means to be employed, but frequently as to the ultimate objects to be pursued, preserved toward each other an indifferent, sometimes almost hostile, attitude, and carried on a separate propaganda by means of their several secret organs printed and disseminated by different centres, which disclaimed all connection with each other. It was to conciliate these dissentions, to merge all the various fragmentary cliques into one vast co-operative organization, that so many leaders met at Lipetsk. It was an almost hopeless task; and though they did achieve a certain result, and even produced a sort of statute,—which, however, was never printed,—it was, on the whole, a very imperfect and makeshift performance. There was to be a "directing committee," which, from the nature of the duties it assumed, might be called a superior agent; while the "executive committee" clearly ought to have taken an inferior position. On this Goldenberg, with a characteristic directness which at once discloses the feebleness of the organization, remarks:

"But our people generally objected to subordination, and therefore the executive committee was not really placed under the control of the directing committee. The latter was bound to know all that was going on in the terroristic faction, and indeed, in the entire revolutionary party; in its hands were centred all the resources of the party, and it was to provide the necessary means for whatever undertaking was in hand. The 'executive' was to consist of persons whose duty it was to take an active part in such undertakings, of course with the knowledge of the directing committee. It does not follow, however, that the initiative of a given undertaking belonged exclusively to the directing committee; far from it. The executive also had the right of making motions and submitting them to the higher committee. There was

no such thing as a strict line of demarcation between the two, as can be seen from the fact that a member of the directing committee could not issue binding dispositions without the sanction of the executive, nor take on himself executive acts. It was, moreover, resolved to have agents of two degrees; those of the first degree to be invested with greater trust, those of the second with lesser. The duty of these agents was to fulfil whatever was imposed on them. The directing committee was to reside in St. Petersburg, the members of the executive wherever their presence and services would be needed."

One of the prisoners completed this account at the trial by remarking that "the distinction between the members of the organization and its agents was real and important. It was resolved that persons who were as yet little known, but whom it could be hoped to find useful and reliable in the sequel, should be attracted by every possible means, and tried occasionally in small things, with great care to find out, above all, whether they approved of the general programme of the party, and were fit to be trusted with the execution of more important missions.

This is, indeed, the very infancy of co-operation; and if so many desperate deeds were achieved, or at least attempted, it is to be attributed not so much to the efficiency of the association, lacking as it was in blind discipline, that main nerve of every secret society, as to the powerful individuality of some of its members, acting severally or in groups. Goldenberg's rather naively worded statement, "our people generally objected to subordination," sets forth in homely fashion a lesson taught by the whole history of Russia; namely, that "our people," though able at any moment to muster a superb array of personal capacities, intellectual and moral, have always been, through lack of training or some more deep-lying natural bias, singularly unapt for prolonged combined action. We are born protestants, every one of us; and however we may yield up our will

to external guidance, there always remains an indestructible nucleus of reasoning *self*, which rebels and shrinks from going *all* lengths merely because we are told to do so, even in a cherished cause, and under approved leadership. This quality, like every other, has its good and evil sides. It has at times disastrously asserted itself in our history—as when, enforced by petty rivalries and mutual jealousies, it retarded by more than one score of years the final liberation of our land from the Tartar yoke, which might have been thrown off earlier by the united action of our several princes. Yet, on the other hand, when called into play by honest motives, it contains, perhaps, a safeguard against that passive subjection to mere authority which makes men follow a waving banner when it has ceased to be anything but a rag of silk or bunting, and stake their lives and souls on a watchword after it has long been only the empty shell of an idea. However that may be, this key-note makes itself distinctly heard through the uproar of our late troubles. It rings out very clearly in Solovieff's declaration that, should his associates unanimously disapprove of his project, he will separate himself from them, and pursue it at his own risk, and on his own responsibility before the law and before his conscience. We may be very sure that the knot of underground workers on the outskirts of Moscow would not have been deterred from their undertaking by the most positive prohibition from their party's highest authorities; they would simply have seceded, and gone on doing what they considered right and necessary.

One item of the unwritten statute seems to have been most consistently carried out—that of secrecy. The means employed were twofold: first the lavish use of false papers, most of the agents being provided with sev-

eral names and passports to match; second, the strict observance of the rule to keep every agent as much as possible in the dark concerning everything but the particular "job" imposed on him, and, as far as feasible, in ignorance even of his fellow-conspirators, who were to be introduced to him as occasion required, and as the more knowing agents saw fit. No agent was, on any account, to discover himself even to his nearest and dearest without the authorization of a superior agent. This system must have produced a most intricate social status, and made daily life a network of *imbroglios* to which old Spanish comedy was simple and transparent. What a curious state of mind to live in, when a man was liable at any moment to see some inoffensive comrade—a light-hearted sister, or cousin, or young lady friend—appear in the character of a blood-thirsty revolutionist: to recognize in the stranger to whom he was formally introduced his dearest friend, whom he thought of as hundreds of miles distant; to form new friendships without ever knowing his new friends' real names, or their knowing his! In short, every man must have lived under the bewildering impression that everybody, himself included, was, or might prove to be—somebody else! Indeed, the sedulous observance of these aliases and disguises almost suggests an amused suspicion that this, as one might term it, masquerading part of conspiring was not without exercising a peculiar attraction on the youthful plotters, after they had been duly prepared and electrified at frequent, though generally not numerous, meetings by the well-directed harangues of able and experienced agitators. Goldenberg has in one place very graphically described, in his unadorned style, these match-and-gunpowder experiments. The meeting of which he speaks had been arranged at the house of a schoolmaster, and was at-

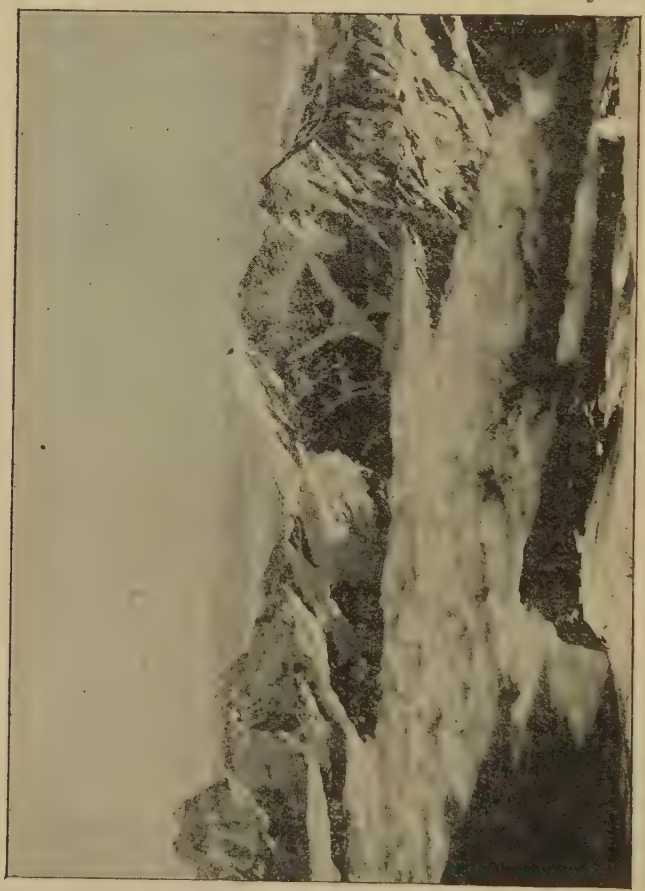
tended by some twenty persons, young men and young women. Says Goldenberg:

"I spoke about the purport of the terroristic movement; alluded to regicide, of course only theoretically, without even hinting that such an act was really in contemplation. My object was merely to feel my ground, and find out the views of the young people on this topic. I took care not to overstep plausible bounds, and did not expatiate on the greatness of our power and resources. Closely observing the impression which my speech produced on the young people, I came to the conclusion that they did not fully comprehend me, and that all the things I was talking of were rather novel to the majority of my audience; at the same time, I could see that I had aroused in them the wish to elucidate all these questions. The second meeting took place at the house of a student; it was attended by forty persons—the former twenty and twenty more, whose names I cannot remember at this distance of time. . . . The result of these meetings was that our young people took the greatest liking to them, and began to manifest an almost passionate desire to have them frequently repeated."

That so powerful and far-reaching a weapon should not be neglected by the leaders of the party when they discussed the practical questions of ways and means, was but natural. Accordingly we find it decreed that, "apart from political murders and regicide, a vast plan of agitation shall be pursued among 'the young people,' the army and peasantry." It is well known, however, that in the two latter classes, from organically historical causes which it would take a separate paper to investigate, revolutionary agitation has always signally failed, to the confusion and not unfrequently the personal danger of the agents employed.

Such were the principal acts and resolutions of the famous socialistic convention held at Lipetsk in June, 1879, the immediate sequel to which were the threefold railway mining attempt and the crowning scene of which we still have to record. But in describing the horrors of the 17th of February, 1880, and all that followed it, we are deprived of our invaluable guide, Goldenberg's depo-

sition. The daring revolutionist's career came to a close with those last busy days which he spent with his mining friends near Moscow. He was sent off by them to Odessa for the dynamite forwarded to that city several



THE CAUCACUS DONGUCASUM, USHLA LEILA SORA.

weeks before, and now rendered useless by the Emperor's change of route and consequent cessation of the mining operations on the track, as it was thought the reinforcement might be available for the Moscow mine, and insure

more complete success. In Odessa, Goldenberg had interviews with several associates, received the dynamite, and having packed it in his trunk, together with sundry bottles of wine and cans of preserves,—a very welcome offering from the ladies of the party to their Moscow friends,—he was calmly proceeding on his way to the latter when he was arrested at Telizavetgrad, a railway station half-way between Odessa and Poltava. This happened five days before the explosion on the Moscow track.

Yet, even though deprived of the valuable information concerning the preparations for the final *coup* of the 17th of February, which a continuation of Goldenberg's narrative would doubtless have afforded us, we still find in the examinations of the prisoners and witnesses, as well as in the speech of the counsel for the Crown, sufficient scraps and traits from life to enable us to piece together a very vivid picture of the dismay and confusion which must have arisen in the Winter Palace when that tremendous crash broke in upon the compliments with which the Emperor was welcoming Prince Alexander of Hesse, who was that evening to be his guest at a family dinner in the private apartments. Officials wildly rushing into the lower story, under the impression that either the steam-boiler or the gas had exploded; the alarm-bell of the *corps-de-garde* ringing frantically at the same time; the shrieks and groans of the dying and wounded, who struggled painfully from under the *débris* of the demolished guard-room, or lay helplessly crushed beneath them (sixty-seven persons in all!); lastly the sudden report that one of the three carpenters in whose room the explosion was discovered to have taken place was missing,—all this must have combined into a scene of uproar and terror not easily matched outside of a beleaguered and bombarded city. The report about the missing carpen-

ter, which was speedily confirmed, restored some degree of order and composure, by giving a definite object to the hitherto aimless search and random surmises of the panic-stricken inmates. It was soon evident that this man, and no other, had been the doer. He had been seen in the basement and in his room a quarter of an hour before the explosion; had then been found busy in the dark at something or other by one of his comrades, who on entering had offered to strike a light, but had been roughly prevented by him; and from that moment the carpenter had entirely disappeared. Further inquiries showed that this person, who called himself Batyshkoff, had been employed in the palace over six months, and, while he approved himself a well-behaved, thorough workman, had been noticed by his companions and superiors as a man of education, highly intelligent, and fully capable of taking a plan and making a correct drawing. About a month before the explosion he had brought a heavy chest and placed it in his room, and, on being asked what he did it for, had jestingly answered that he meant to hoard a treasure from his earnings in the palace. Subsequent investigations and various discoveries,—such as a cleverly-sketched plan of the Winter Palace, on which were some words in his handwriting, his identification by witnesses from a photograph, etc.,—proved beyond a doubt that the supposed Batyshkoff was no other than Khaltourin, a notorious revolutionist, who, under the greatest variety of aliases, and as far back as 1875 and 1876, had been plying an active "agitation" among the working-classes, and organizing the secret association known under the name of "Northern Workingmen's League." He was specially fitted for this circle of action, being himself one of the working-class and by birth a peasant, who, by self-education and a course of studies

in a technical school, had qualified himself for the part of a leader. He was never found after his disappearance from the palace, and we cannot help wishing he may have effected a final escape, as it is known that he was in the gripe of a foe as implacable as human justice,—consumption, which in our clime seldom gives long respites to its victims. He had been talking of going south, and seems also to have had a vague intention of making his way to America, to found or join some agricultural colony on socialistic principles.

It was, of course, not for one moment supposed that this attempt, planned as it was on so gigantic a scale, with such far-reaching foresight, executed with such unexampled daring and infallible precision, should have been the isolated deed of one fanatical schemer. Its connection with the vast terroristic system, suspected from the first, was soon established by the concatenation in which it was proved to stand with certain other facts, revealed a short time before, but not yet fully explained —facts which, by the light now shed on them, stood forth in their full significance, too obvious to need more than recording, in order to bring the last crime home to the central influence from which so many others had emanated.

It is now that the name of Kviatkovsky first becomes conspicuous. Until the very moment of his arrest, this remarkable man, one of the "master-spirits" and motive powers of the whole engine, had contrived to escape a notoriety which must have deprived the party of one of its most gifted leaders, and had worked steadily and covertly in the dark, participating, indeed, in all the more important machinations, putting in an appearance at Lipetsk, but reserving to himself more especially the handling of that chief lever of all, the secret press,

whose discovery and suppression quickly followed his arrest and the search instituted in his lodgings as early as the 6th of December, 1879. Some articles produced by this search were deemed, not unreasonably, to be conclusive evidence of his complicity in his party's crowning act of frenzy. Yet Kviatkovsky himself, from reasons difficult to fathom, saw fit utterly to deny to the last having been concerned in this particular act, or having had previous knowledge of it, even while protesting that he had no hopes that such a denial could save his life, which he admitted to be forfeited on many other grounds, each of them sufficient to seal his doom. It is hardly to be supposed that so clear-headed a man should have expected his word to prevail against such circumstantial evidence as the following articles found in his own room: (1) a plan, very correctly drawn from memory, of the Winter Palace, with some words and short notes proved to be in Khaltourin's writing, and found crumpled up on the floor in a corner, amid a heap of waste-paper; (2) three portable mines, complete and ready for use; and (3) a passport under the name of Batourin, one of Khaltourin's well-known aliases. Yet he persisted in his most incredible statement that he knew nothing of the plan until it was found in his room, and that he had not the remotest suspicion by whom it could have been brought or left there; that the passport had been given him to keep by a friend, who himself had it from an unknown workingman, and that he had never been told Batourin's real name. As for the mines, he simply declined telling who had brought them to his rooms.

But this search, exhaustively carried on all through the evening and night (from 6 P. M. to 5 A. M.), led to even more important results, as hinted above. It em-

braced not only his own room, but that of Eugenie Figner—a young lady of considerable ability and education, Kviatkovsky's devoted fellow-worker, and to whom he seems to have been attached by more than the bond of a common cause. She was one of the sixteen prisoners at the bar. Both of course lived under assumed names. Her ostensible occupation was music, to which, as a measure of precaution, she devoted enough time every day to enable her cook to depose at the trial that "the lady was mostly playing on the piano in the absence of the gentleman, who used to go out early in the morning, and to come home only to dinner and tea." The same witness, however, added that both "the lady" and her sister, who at one time stayed with her, "used to write a great deal,"—a piece of information which, considering her connection with the manager of the secret press, was not interpreted in her favor. But then, nothing much more criminating could have been adduced against them both than a simple enumeration of the articles found in their lodgings. In Eugenie Figner's room, a glass vessel with dynamite; a bundle of white paper, the size and shape of *Narodnaya Volia* (Will of the People); and six hundred and fifty-three copies of odd numbers of that paper itself. In the dining-room, forty-five copies of a proclamation issued by the executive comittee on occasion of the late railroad explosion near Moscow. In Kviatkovsky's own room, packed in a trunk, proof-sheets of the *Narodnaya Volia*, and other products of the "free press;" forty-five copies of a revolutionary programme of action; several manuscripts containing seditious matter, evidently ready for the press; a proclamation "To the brave Cossack army," and sundry letters; lastly, a package of forged passports, certificates, and other documents. Kviatkovsky,

aware of the unanswerable nature of the evidence, did not attempt denial for his own part, but only used every effort to clear his friend by asserting that the criminating articles found in her bureau had been laid there by him shortly before the search, in her absence and without her knowledge. In his defence—for he, in common with several of his companions, had refused the assistance of the counsel proffered him by the court—he maintained this point as earnestly as his denial concerning his complicity in the catastrophe at the Winter Palace.

The next important disclosures were made at the lodgings of another active accomplice, searched a few days later, on the 16th of December. From the nature of the articles found in his possession it was evident that this person—an inferior clerk in some government office—was chiefly employed, probably on account of his skill in penmanship, in the manufacture of those false documents with which agents were so lavishly supplied. A complete set of the necessary materials and implements, together with a handsome collection of autograph signatures of high officials, were discovered in a large leathern trunk, besides a number of proof-sheets and papers similar to those confiscated in Kviatkovsky's rooms, and the usual accompaniment of dynamite *obligato*. Moreover, the owner's connection with the secret press was made patent by the presence of a quantity of type of a size corresponding to that of the "*Narodnaya Volia*." But the final and most tragical event came to pass a few weeks later, on the 30th of January, 1880, when the police descended in force, assisted by a party of *gendarmes*, on the revolutionary printing office itself, after having first, by long and patient spying and ferreting, ascertained beyond the possibility of a mistake that it was organized in a private lodging kept by one of those fictitious couples

who form so conspicuous a feature of these strange times. The scene which ensued must have been chaotic; for it is a hopeless task to try and elicit anything like a consistent, orderly narrative from the mass of fragmentary, individual evidence given by the different actors. Their statements are not contradictory, only vague and confused; like those of men who have been engaged in action too exciting and too rapid to be able to account for it minutely in cold blood. So much is certain: the door was not opened in obedience to repeated summons, and had to be burst in; the police, when they at length forced their way into the rooms, were confronted by utter darkness, silence, and clicking revolvers; a violent blind scuffle ensued, in which about sixty shots were exchanged, without serious results, on account of the darkness. At last there was a cry, "We surrender!" "How many are you;" was asked. "Five!" answered a female voice. Another was heard in angry remonstrance: "Cowards! was it not agreed that we were all to fight it out! And now you skulk behind and leave us women in the front." In another moment, and after some struggling on the part of the men, four persons, two of them women, were secured and bound, while six revolvers were picked up from the floor.

One of the police officers who advanced into the other rooms to look for his prisoner, was greeted on the threshold of the furthest one by a double report; and when a lamp was at length brought in (it must be remembered that our private houses are not lit with gas), he beheld a ghastly sight; a man lying dead upon a mattress on the floor, shot through the head,—evidently an act of suicide, committed as a last resource against surrender. Both balls, from two shots fired in immediate succession, had entered the right temple through the

same opening almost simultaneously, leaving a black and carbonized edge around the wound, but had issued from the skull, after traversing the brain, in two different places,—through an opening just above the left ear, and another in the crown of the head. When the prisoners had been disposed of, and the search could begin without further disturbance, the first thing that was discovered, thrown into a corner of the room where the dead man lay, and wrapped in some old matting, was the identical auger which had been used for boring purposes in the Moscow railway mine. The rest of the booty made up a most formidable inventory: a printing press in perfect working order; about 25 *pouds* (1,000 pounds) of type, 4,000 copies of the "*Narodnaya Volia*," heaps of forged documents,—passport blanks, certificates of different kinds, etc.—together with everything necessary for the fabrication of those documents, some dynamite of course, two pamphlets on the preparation of the substance, several plans illustrating the process of blowing up a rapidly advancing train, and many other things, besides the six revolvers and three daggers. This was certainly sufficient to justify the accusation in affirming that "these lodgings contained, besides the secret printing office, the central agency for the manufacturing of false papers and supplying therewith all persons for whom it became necessary to assume an 'illegal' position, as well as a laboratory for the preparation of dynamite and other explosive substances."

The separate charge against the prisoner Presniakoff—given in the Act of Accusation under the head of "Armed resistance to the agents of the law, as expressed by two shots fired by the prisoner, wounding one and causing the death of the other of his captors"—presents no particular interest or complication, and may therefore

be dismissed with the brief remark that the prisoner's guilt was amply proved. It remains to record the sentence, pronounced late in the evening of the seventh day of this long and laborious trial. For Kviatkovsky, Presniakoff and three more, it was death by hanging; for the remaining eleven, banishment to Siberia in different grades of severity, with or without imprisonment and hard labor, and for terms varying from fifteen to twenty years. At the same time the latter prisoners were recommended to mercy, and considerable commutations proposed for all. In its final form, the sentence condemned only two to hard labor in the mines for fifteen years. Of the rest, some were sentenced to hard labor, not in the mines but in state factories, for four and eight years; some to banishment to more or less remote parts of Siberia; while Drigo and one other escaped with a very mild sentence, simply obliging them to reside hereafter in the Government of Tomsk, the most western, and consequently most civilized, region of Siberia. Degradation was passed alike against all. In confirming the sentence of the court, the Emperor further commuted the death penalty of three of the five condemned prisoners to exile, with imprisonment and hard labor for life. To Kviatkovsky and Presniakoff, however, the imperial mercy did not extend; and they suffered death on the 16th of November, within the walls of the fortress.

It is but fair to state that, throughout this long and fatiguing judicial procedure, the treatment used towards the prisoners was uniformly considerate and polite, the mode of addressing and questioning them scrupulously courteous; also, that the counsel for the prosecution in their speeches not only evidently strove to remain within the strict bounds of impartial justice, but repeatedly

showed a leaning towards leniency. Thus, in referring to one of the female defenders of the printing office—a woman of the peasant class who had lived there ostensibly as cook—the orator parenthetically expressed hope that the judges would find it not inconsistent with their duty to visit her with the lightest possible punishment, in consideration of her ignorance, almost even of reading and writing, and of her utter want of culture amounting to stupidity, and accompanied by partial deafness. All this is in keeping with the serious and dignified spirit in which our lawyers, since the great judicial reform, regard their profession. That compound of unseemly virulence, ferocious vindictiveness, and bombastic phraseology which, under the name of *reqisitoire*, is the disgrace of French criminal courts and the glory of an aspiring *procureur du roi*—or *de l'empereur*, or *de la republique*, as the case may be—is utterly repugnant to the deep humane bent of the Russian nature. A Russian *procureur* would scorn to dig into the past life of an unfortunate prisoner, in order triumphantly to drag to light his most trivial youthful peccadilloes, nay! his schoolboy pranks, and by dint of cruel ingenuity to force and twist them into so many proofs of a precocious viciousness, an unnatural propensity to evil, until he stands before society a predestined criminal, a monster branded even before he failed, and now placed entirely out of the pale of humanity. Ever since the European judicial forms and institutions were transplanted into Russian soil, and quickly took root in it, our *parquet* has been remarkable in the discharge of its duties by a moderation and humane regard to fairness, which prove it to have thoroughly grasped the higher sense of its responsible and so often painful functions. It could not be otherwise in a country where the common people call prisoners of all kinds, without distinction of

rank or degree of criminality, by a generic name meaning "unhappy ones," but conveying a shade of infinitely deeper and tenderer pity than can be rendered by the English word. When the chained gangs of malefactors —and alas! political convicts were not exempted from the practice—used to be led across the whole Empire on their endless, weary march to Siberia, the population of the villages would pour out to meet them, and may be escort them a short distance, not with insults and imprecations, but with gentle words and outstretched offerings of food and even money. Now that convict trains and convict cars run on all the lines, and have done away with this long preliminary torture, popular sympathy still asserts itself at the railway stations, and many a *douceur* of tobacco, delicate wheaten bread, or small coins, is handed in at the windows.

Siberia! the mines! Horror-laden, these words loom out mysteriously, an awful impersonation of the great bleak North, which appears in a vague remoteness, as a limbo of punishment, desolation and despair! And truly it were difficult to overrate the dreadful import of those names. The vast arctic continent with its huge, sluggish, silent rivers, its immense lowering forests teeming with fur-bearing game, its still more immense expanses of eternally snow-bound plains, its hidden ore, its convict colonies, is not a cheerful picture to contemplate, at least not this side of the picture. But there is another side to it. The statesman and political economist sees in this gigantic appendage to Russia a great promise for the future, a rich reserve of potential resources. He watches rejoicingly its growing cities, its incipient colonization, its developing industrial and commercial enterprise, the progress of culture which slowly but surely spreads, bringing with it its thousand demands of intellectual and material refinement, where till lately money-making

reigned supreme in its most vulgar, unmitigated coarseness. And he knows that these results are in great part effected by the influx of the Russian element by means of convict transportation. It would take me far beyond my present limits, and away from my present theme, to discuss this very extensive and intricate subject. But it will not be inconsistent with either to attempt a sketch of the probable future career of the hundreds of young men who of late years have trodden the long, dreary road to the far East.

Let us follow those whose doom is heaviest. Few of them—probably none—will end their allotted term at the mines or State factories. An untimely death will doubtless end the sufferings of many, enfeebled from ill health brought on or aggravated by confinement, hardships, or climate, before the tardy hand of mercy can reach them. Yet, wonderful to say, many more survive the horrors of the first years than would seem possible for men of gentle nurture and unhardened body. If they are resigned and quietly behaved, they will after a while—three, four, or five years instead of the fifteen or twenty of their sentence—be brought under one of the so-called "gracious manifestoes" which are always being issued on occasion of birthdays, births, marriages, etc., in the Emperor's immediate family, and transferred to some one of the convict colonies, from which in due time they will be released in like manner and allowed to live within some particular rural district, at a great distance from city or town, and under strict surveillance of the local police. Gradually the range widens, till it comprises district towns; the surveillance is lightened; at last the capital of the Government itself is opened to the half-pardoned convict, and with it society and resources of every kind. Society, indeed, is apt to lionize him. It now depends in a great measure on himself, his

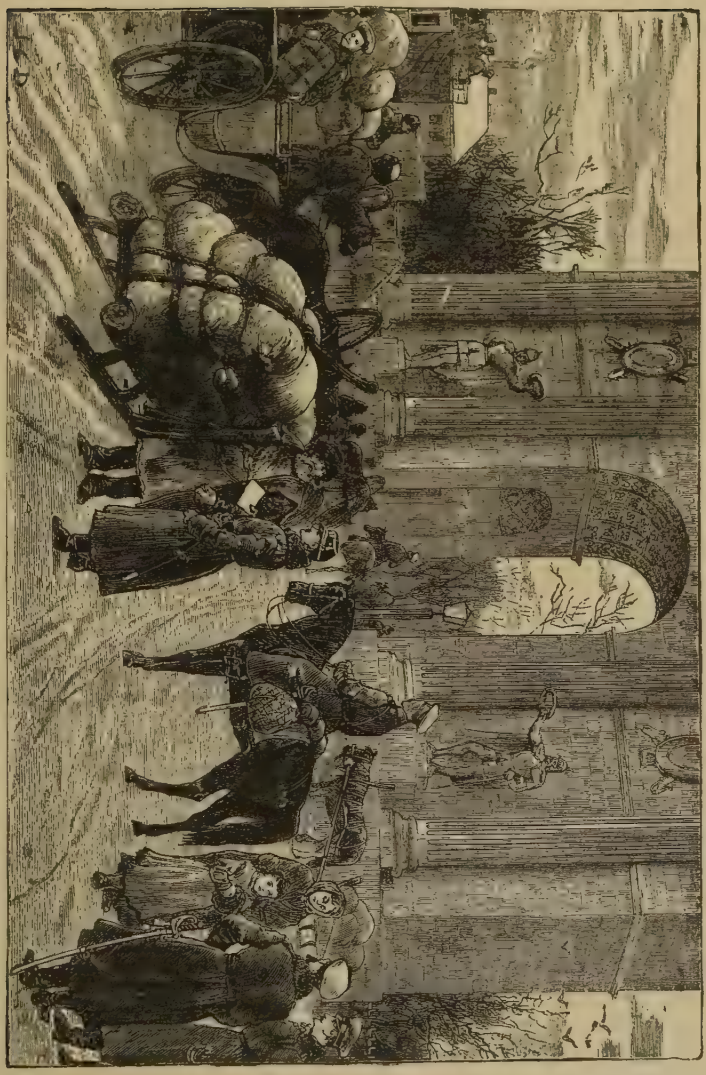
good sense and abilities, to shape his further fortunes. Men of education and scientific or technical attainments are in as great demand, and for the same reasons, in our far east as in the far west of this country. And when by the end of ten or twelve years, as is generally the case, and after having previously been transferred to the more populous and civilized western Governments, the political convict is restored to his rank and privileges, freed from all disabilities and finally recalled from banishment, it is by no means rare to see him return to the shores of the Baikal of his own free will, to settle there for life. I have known such lawyers, physicians, engineers, miners—able and energetic men, who had come to love the wilderness, with its wide openings, its large hospitality, its manifold possibilities, and would not have exchanged it, except on compulsion, for what they had already learned to call the cold, narrow spirit of the over-crowded cities of the old world; though heaven knows they need not have objected to any portion of even old Russia on account of over-crowding! One young lawyer in particular do I remember. He was little over thirty, sturdy of frame, and keen of look; his manners had lost the polish of his early social training, and acquired a certain not unpleasing self-relying *nonchalance*. He had come to St. Petersburg on a hurried trip to see his friends, assert his newly-recovered rights, and transact some business; but all his thoughts were centred on a speedy return to Irkoutsk, where he had left a promising and already flourishing practice, some half-started ventures in a mining enterprise, and, as he almost hinted, a fairer attraction than all these, in the form of a well-dowered daughter of some wealthy merchant. He was so enthusiastic in his descriptions as almost to become poetical, and every day he was detained in the capital appeared to him a real loss. Such political exiles as are

not deprived of their liberty, but only bound to reside within certain assigned districts, of course have all the more chances in their favor. The intercession of friends at home also does much to shorten their term and hasten their transfer to cities or more habitable regions, if they behave judiciously, and have not the exceptional ill-luck of falling under the rule of some of those ignorant and wantonly brutal officials, whose number diminishes with every year, and who will soon live only in local traditions, the indignant records of the contemporary press, or the memoirs of some prisoners endowed with literary talent.

The assassination of our Emperor, Alexander II., is of too recent occurrence, the particulars of which, and of the trial of his murderers are too well known by all the civilized world for me to enter upon a consideration of any of the circumstances connected therewith. All Russia mourns his loss as a grateful child would that of a kind and indulgent father.

No sovereign, not Elizabeth herself, had done for his people spontaneously what Alexander II. had done for his. Splendidly supported by his nobility, he had carried out the abolition of serfdom with a high hand, with precipitation almost, and intolerance of all gainsaying which was the very recklessness of an honest determination to do right quickly, and at all cost. This gigantic act was followed, with scarce breathing time between, by one of hardly less importance—the judicial reform, introducing open courts of law and public trial by jury. Then came the partial enfranchisement of the press after the model, very imperfect indeed, of the French press-laws under Napoleon III., but expressly announced as preliminary and temporary. Was that the man, was that the sovereign, to be requited with an assassin's ball?

Nothing was less justifiable than the shot fired at the Emperor in 1866, but so naturally kind-hearted and mer-



PRECAUTIONS AGAINST NIHILISTS.—CLOSING THE GATES OF ST. PETERSBURG AT SUNSET.

ciful was he, that there are few now who doubt if left to himself he would have spared the life of his murderous assailant. Had he followed the merciful dictates of his own heart, the first "misunderstanding" between him and his people might never have arisen. If at that critical hour there were any by his side who took advantage of the disturbed state of the monarch's spirit, thrown off its balance by this gratuitous, most unmerited assault, to whisper to him counsels of wrath and reprisal, to increase their own importance by an exaggerated show of devotion and alarm, to urge him into a course of general suspicion and reaction, under pretence of insuring the safety of his person, endangered by his too confiding neglect of their previous advice—if any such there were, Heaven forgive those men! History will not, if she ever lays hold of their names.

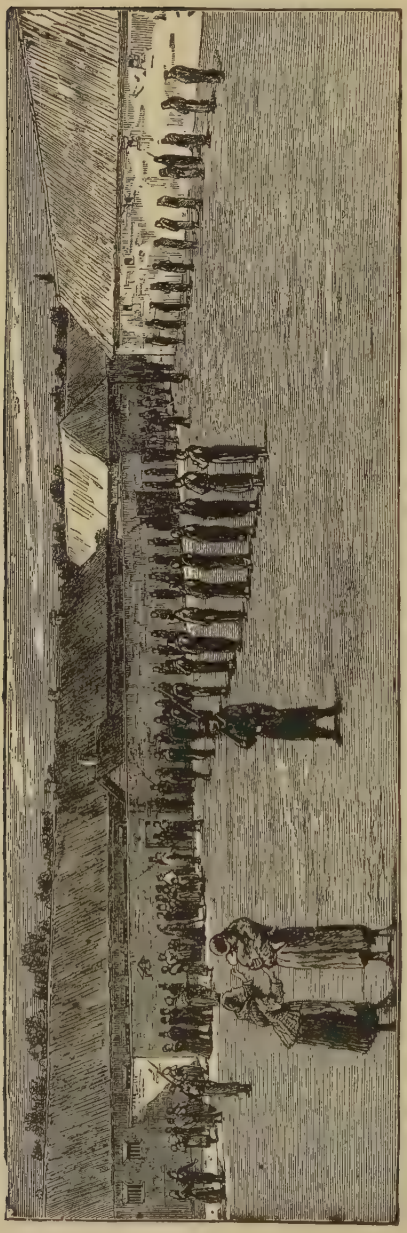
A passing misunderstanding! Fifteen years blotted out of a country's life! A couple of hundred years from now posterity will mention the name of Alexander II. with the reverence of a martyred saint, and place him in that galaxy of human satellites whose deeds still fill the world with radiance. But we are not posterity. We are burdened with affections which keep us down and prevent our soaring to a bird's-eye view of our own times; so we see the accessories which will wane into the indistinct back-ground of the ages some day, but which stand out at present clear and mournful. A few hundred human lives sacrificed may be a very paltry item; hardly so to us, however, when they happen to be those of our brothers, our sons, our lovers, our friends—of "our boys," in short. It is vain that history sternly points to other lands and other times, and reminds us that with such as these, crushed, laid low, with all their budding promise, their splendid powers, their daring aspirations, the path of all human progress has been strewn.

CHAPTER XI.

The interest which I hope has been inspired in the reader by a perusal of the preceding pages, will, I trust, increase in the following chapters describing my observations while in that most desolate, wild and so little known portion of the earth—Siberia.

Looking back to the time when I was first able to read imperfectly, I can remember my longings to visit, as an adventurer, that wonderful country, about which so many thrilling stories were told; of its vast arctic expanse; the homes of wretched exiles in eternal isolation from the world, as it were; of packs of hungry wolves chasing or devouring travellers; of how the wild boar and Russian bears are hunted, and many other printed relations descriptive of Siberia's frozen wilderness. Year by year this desire intensified, until the outrages of Nihilism at last determined me upon a visit to Russia, and an investigation of that subject naturally took me far into the interior of Siberia, where my ambitions were at length fully gratified.

Before leaving St. Petersburg I learned by chance that, notwithstanding the correctness of my passport, it would be necessary for me to procure a special permit before entering Siberia, or it would be impossible for me to return again without putting our minister to the trouble of securing my liberation through official correspondence,



SIBERIAN EXILES AT THE CENTRAL DISMISSAL PRISON, MOSCOW.

which even might not be successful. After procuring such passport as was necesary I took the train for Moscow, where I spent several days viewing things of interest in that quaint old capital. Among the many places of special importance I visited in Moscow was the celebrated Central Prison, which is a depot where is collected all offenders whether political or otherwise who have been sentenced to exile in Siberia. It must be remembered that capital punishment is not practiced in Russia except for high treason. Convicts for other high crimes are sentenced to varied terms of imprisonment or banished to different parts of Siberia according to the degree of crime; the most dangerous

criminals are sent far east to the mines; others are confined in Siberian prisons, whilst those guilty of minor offenses are sent to swell penal colonies in villages which are under police surveillance. But all prisoners sentenced to Siberia are first brought to Moscow and lodged in the Central Prison, from whence they are taken under convoys, in relays of generally three hundred, to the place of banishment.

This prison is constructed to hold twenty-five hundred convicts, a number which it not unfrequently contains. All the prisoners wear long, rough coats having an orange colored square patch sewn into the back. There are two yards, in one of which are the minor criminals unfettered, while in the other are those convicted of serious crimes; these wear large chains on their feet attached to which is an iron ball weighing about twelve pounds.

The saddest sights to be witnessed at this prison are the wives and little children of the convicts, who have travelled many weary miles to say a last good-bye to those they love, or who have decided to accompany their relatives into exile. The number of wives who voluntarily join their husbands in banishment is truly astonishing, and is a striking exemplification of that truthful saying: "Nothing can equal a woman's love." The parting scenes, witnessed almost weekly at this prison, are often inexpressibly sad, one of which I now recall only to reawaken the sorrowful sympathy I then experienced. A young, handsome fellow who, I was told, was a political offender, had been brought to Moscow with a large party of prisoners four days before I saw him. While engaged with my interpreter making inquiries I was greatly startled by a sudden scream, when, upon looking around to discover the cause, I saw a young woman bearing a little babe on her left arm, while her right was clasped

tightly about the young fellow's neck; they were both crying and trembling in an agony of poignant grief.

CENTRAL PRISON, MOSCOW.—THE LAST PARTINGS.

Amid choking sobs they talked in their native tongue, which to me was unintelligible, but I soon saw that the young man was expostulating with the woman about

something which only added to their already overwhelming sorrow. My interpreter soon gained for me the particulars, which were these: The young man was the husband of the woman and had been convicted in the city of Yaroslaf upon a charge of printing and circulating revolutionary literature, his sentence being hard labor in the Siberian mines for a period of ten years. When taken to Moscow the young wife was not permitted to accompany him on the train, but so strong was her attachment that she determined to see him at least once more, and gathering up her little girl babe, started alone, on foot, for Moscow, one hundred and seventy-five miles distant. Day and night she pushed as rapidly along as her feet could carry her with the burden of her child, fearing that she might not arrive before her husband's departure, until on the morning of the fourth day she reached Moscow and had the inexpressible satisfaction of greeting her shackled and grief-burdened husband. This meeting served only to increase their agony, for the wife insisted upon accompanying her husband into exile, while he, with feelings of wounded pride, could not consent, and bade her return home. I left them still clasped in each others' arms, crying bitterly, and never learned afterward whether or not the young wife became an exile for her husband's sake. Such incidents as these, however, are very common at the Central Prison, but they only prepared me for much more sorrowful sights which I was to witness in Siberia.

Before leaving Moscow I went through the Kremlin, which is an immense wall, 7,280 feet in circumference, within which are many, in fact nearly all, the interesting features to be found by a visitor in the city. In 1812, when besieged by Napoleon, by command of Russia's greatest field marshal, Suwarrow, all of Moscow was

ALEXANDER III. AND THE CZARINA ENTERING THE KREMLIN AT MOSCOW.

burned except within the Kremlin, but even this wonderful citadel did not escape injury, as several mines were sprung beneath it by the French. Napoleon took possession of the Kremlin and had his quarters in the palace, which is inside the walls, but there being no means for provisioning his army, he was compelled to retreat with the most disastrous results that are recorded in all history.

The Kremlin is entered by five gateways, to each of which some tradition attaches. The "Redeemer's Gate" is the most important; over its arch is hung a picture of Christ, so ancient that no one knows its history; many verily believe that it was hung over the gateway by the Madonna herself. It is told and believed by all devout Muscovites that the French tried to remove this picture because they thought its frame was solid gold; to accomplish this, they placed ladders against the wall, but every attempt to mount was frustrated by the ladders breaking; they next tried to batter down the wall with cannons, but the powder would not ignite; fires were then built under the cannons, but when they did explode, it was backward, killing many artillerymen. They next tried to break the picture down with stones, but never a stone could be made to strike it. It is a fact, that one of Napoleon's powder trains accidentally exploded near the gate, which destroyed many surrounding buildings and cracked the tower and archway up to the holy image, but the picture and lamp which hung before it escaped injury.

The buildings inside the Kremlin include churches, monasteries, arsenals and museums, all of the Tartar style of architecture, surmounted by belfries, turrets, donjons, spires, sentry-boxes fixed upon minarets, domes, watch-towers, etc., and having walls pierced with loop-holes

and crenelated crowns after the fashion of fortresses in the middle ages, the whole presenting a picture of great

THE GREAT BELL OF MOSCOW, AND IVAN VELIKI TOWER.

variety and pleasing aspect. The best views of Moscow are obtained from the Sparrow Hills (from which Napoleon first sighted the city), the tower, or from the Moskva

Rekoi bridge, which crosses the Moskva river near the south wall.

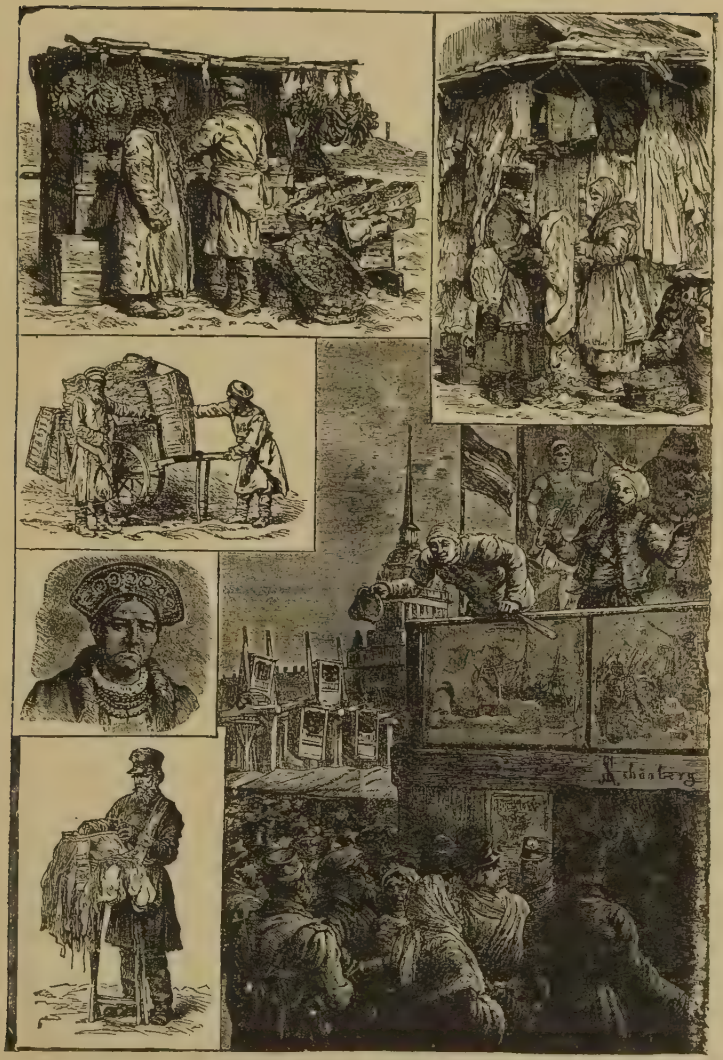
The great tower, *Ivan Veliki*, is 325 feet in height, which may be ascended by a succession of very steep, narrow stairways. It was erected by Boris Godunoff in the year 1600, and contains forty-three bells of various sizes, some of which are pure silver. The great bell, "Czar Kolokel," which was cast in 1730, was hung in the tower, but fell seven years later when the upper portion of the tower was burned. Its immense weight caused it to sink very deep into the earth, where it remained one hundred years, until Nicholas I. caused it to be mounted upon a pedestal where it still stands. This bell is twenty-one feet in height and weighs 400,000 pounds; its value, estimated at the price for old metal, is $200,000. A large piece, broken out of the bell by the fall, lies beside it, and the clapper is in the chamber underneath.

It was on Saturday, the 12th of August, that I left Moscow for Nijni Novgorod, in the company of Captain Spicer, of New London, Connecticut, and an interpreter named Smith, who is a native of Jersey City, New Jersey, but for the past seven years has been a resident of Moscow, where he acts as guide and interpreter for American visitors. Capt. Spicer was also enroute for Siberia, being interested in the fur trade, and intending to explore northern Siberia in quest of fur-bearing animals. His company was very acceptable to me, for I saw only one other American while in Moscow, the Rev. John Hall, of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian church, New York City, who was spending his summer vacation in Russia; and in Siberia I did not expect to meet with any one who could speak my language.

The distance from Moscow to Nijni is 273 miles, which

is accomplished by rail in 13 hours. I remained in Nijni over Sunday and Monday to attend the great fair which is held there annually from August 1st to October 1st; though in ordinary times the town does not contain a population of more than 45,000, yet during the fair there may be seen fully 200,000 persons here engaged in barter. The city, which is generally called Nijni, to distinguish it from Great Novgorod, appears to have been founded in 1222, and as early as 1366 fairs were annually held there. In 1641 a charter was granted to the Monastery of St. Macarius, 71 miles below the town, empowering the monks to levy taxes on the trade carried on at Nijni. This privilege they continued to enjoy, much to their gain, until 1751, when the trade, which was created by the fair, became so nearly free that the revenue, which now became the Government's, did not exceed $500. Statistics show that from 1697 to 1790 the value of the annual trade carried on at this fair increased from $60,000 to $22,500 000, while now it is estimated at $80,000,000 annually.

The town is situated on a hill at the very center of that water communication which joins the Caspian, Black, White and Baltic seas, besides it is the eastern terminus of the world's railway lines, and the point of contact of European industry and Asiatic wealth. Below Nijni is a vast bottom land over which flows in spring and winter the confluent waters of the Volga and Oka rivers. During the summer season the waters recede, leaving this bottom of sand ready for the purpose to which it is so well adapted. Immediately a tattoo of hammers begins which ceases neither day nor night until the whole vast plain is covered with frame shanties of every conceivable description, into which fabrics of every design and complexion are crammed; the articles thus exposed at the fair come



FAMILIAR SCENES AT THE NIJNI FAIR.

from all parts of the Empire as far east as Kamschatka, while China, Thibet, Hindoostan, Tartary, and even Japan are well represented when the fair opens. Such a conglomeration of sights and smells can be found at no other place in the world as in Nijni; during the day-time there is a jam and bustle among buyers and sellers who crowd the sidewalks and streets, so that passage through, on foot, is almost impossible. Beggars, organ-grinders, auctioneers, jugglers, performing bears, Punch and Judy, and an *olla prodrida* of jumbling jacks and catch-on-as-you-please kind of attractions are crowded in among the legitimate features of the fair. When night throws its shadows over the bustling scene, there is a magic change in the panorama; a million lights blaze up and throw flickering rays, like dancing jinnii, over a weird ensemble. The shops are closed about ten o'clock to give place to a revelry of chaotic choruses. Open air concerts are on every side, in which the chief features are half-naked women howling bacchante songs and kicking at a space much above their heads. Among these depraved artistes Circassian girls are more numerous, those beauties of the Caucasus we read so much about, but who, in fact, are fair and luscious only at a distance of one thousand leagues from the observer. Polish girls are also plentiful in these bazaars of freedom, and as a class they are very handsome. I saw two negro women (who were from the West Indies) at one of the concerts, who attracted as much attention as an Indian Rajah would in the United States. They were rated far above ordinary mortals, and had for escorts distinguished government officials, who hung on their words like bumble bees on the honey of fresh clover blossoms.

I perambulated around through the fair and night scenes until exhausted nature could perform no more,

when I retired to a room in which there were already thirteen other occupants snoring off the potations they

WOODEN CHURCH IN NIJNI-NOVGOROD.

had indulged. I had an old quilt to repose on, which smelt like a Dutch cheese factory freshly stirred up, and

resembled the last assault in a Polish insurrection. But putting a clothes-pin on my nose, I lay down and slept with my eyes wide open to prevent being surprised by a lot of murderers, whom I very agreeably supposed the thirteen howling stump-suckers to be.

My visit to Nijni proper was much pleasanter because I could not see so much. The town has a Kremlin in imitation of that in Moscow, a grim, loose-jointed citadel, having battlemented walls and mediæval towers surrounding a score or more of Byzantine churches with cupolas running up in bunches until their apexes terminate in gilded crosses. Most of these churches are wooden structures, made in the ornate style peculiar to Russia and Turkey, adapted equally well for devotional exercises or a bonfire.

All the large cities on the Volga (Samara alone excepted), Saratof, Simbirsk, Kasan and Nijni-Novgorod, are situated on the picturesque and hilly side of the Volga—that is, on its right bank, for the left bank is flat and featureless throughout. The only thing which distinguishes Nijni-Novgorod from the others is that its range of hills is higher and its situation consequently more imposing, while the intervening country between the village of Podnoveye and Nijni is eminently picturesque. Two white buildings, the Pajorski Monastery and the St. Mary's Institution for girls, are conspicuous amidst the varied foliage which surrounds them ; and the white, crenellated walls of the ancient kremlin, creeping up the precipitous slope of the hill, flanked here and there by small, square, minaret-shaped towers, with the old town reposing under the shadow of its Fortress and looking down serenely on the busy scene below, give to Nijni-Novgorod an appearance unique among Russian cities. The town of Nijni consists of two parts—the old town,

VIEW OF THE GREAT CENTRAL SQUARE IN MOSCOW.

nestling around its kremlin, and proudly disdainful of the commercial advantages offered it by the proximity of two great rivers; and the new town, consisting of the new quays built along the right bank of the Oka, and the new streets which have sprung up behind them. When the fair is held at this town, the view from the Mouravieff Tower is perhaps the most remarkable in the world. There, embraced within the compass of a glance, is the whole scene of the Great Fair of Nijni-Novgorod. A huge, flat, sandy plain, flanked by two great rivers, is covered over with houses of different colors, mostly red and yellow, made of brick and wood and matting; millions of the world's richest merchandise stored or strewn in every direction; barges warped along the quays of two rivers still busily engaged in unshipping their exhaustless cargoes. At one glance you see all this. Everywhere you meet outward signs of the devotion of the people, and, in all the hurry of business, a *moujik* never passes a shrine without stopping and making the sign of the cross. It will not be deemed strange, then, that the fair is opened by a grand religious ceremony in a church in the great square.

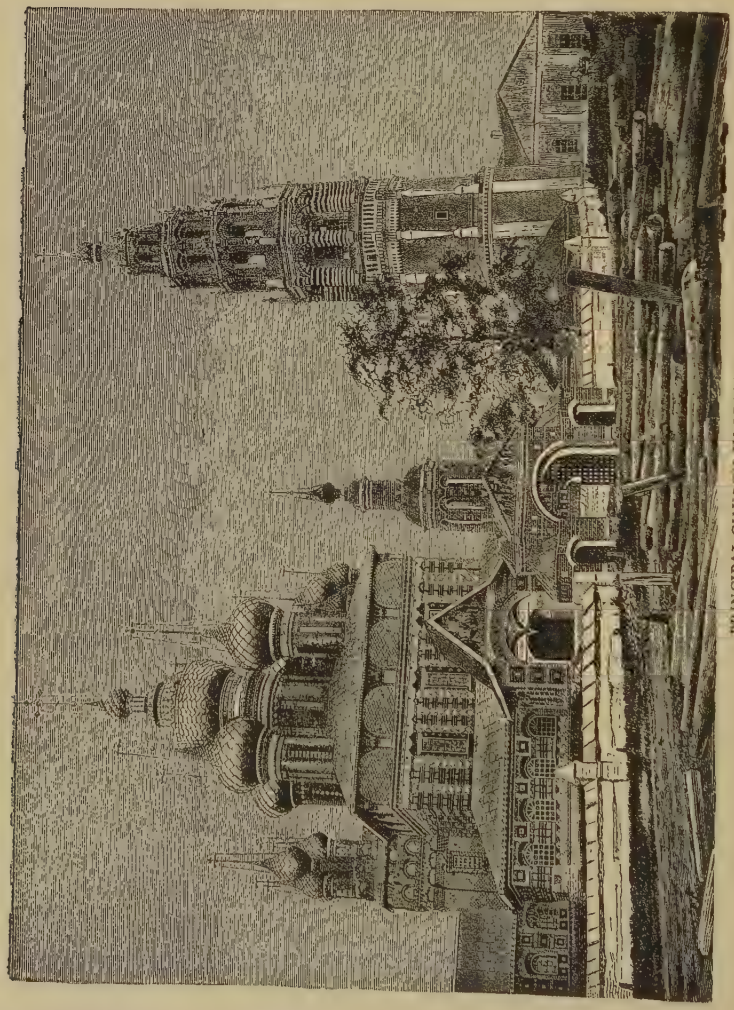
I left Nijni at noon on Tuesday by steamer, for Perm, which is four days' journey, or about six hundred miles. The steamers which ply on the Volga are all named after North and South American rivers, but they resemble very little the steamers that are run on our American waters. Nearly every one in Russia travels third-class, so that there are three classes provided for, by building the boats with three cabins, one above the other. Our voyage was a particularly delightful one, the weather being pleasant and our steamer moderately fast. The Volga is a large stream, but has a channel almost as treacherous as the Missouri. On each side there is a wide, level

stretch of bottom, which is overflowed during spring time, until the river becomes many miles in width, which of course causes a constant change of channel.

After a run of seventeen hours we landed at Kasan, a quaint, old, Asiatic looking town, full of Tartar people and Tartar customs, but I did not stop over, as nothing of special interest is to be found in the place. Twenty miles below Kasan we came to the mouth of the Kama river, and here I was greatly reminded of the junction of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, as the appearance is almost identical. We left the Volga and turned up the Kama at four o'clock in the afternoon, so that a beautiful view was afforded of the meeting of waters and a changing landscape. Our progress was now less rapid, for there was a strong current against us. The scenery, however, was more varied than that along the Volga, though at no place were there any high hills, such as we almost constantly pass on American rivers.

We reached Perm on Saturday afternoon and were compelled to lie over until Monday morning, as no trains leave there on Saturday evenings. The town contains a mixed population of about 30,000 souls, whose principal occupation is handling ore; there are several reduction works and also a Government mint in the place, giving employment to a large number of persons. Perm, though an old place, has grown to importance within the last ten years. Alexander II. conceived the construction of a railroad across Siberia, and nearly all necessary arrangements for its building were completed, when his tragic death immediately stopped the enterprise. Several years had been spent by three different commissions who were sent to select the most feasible route across the Ural mountains. One of these commissions reported in favor of a route by way of Orenburg, which, it was

strenuously claimed, would be more practicable because of its southern position. The other commission in-



PRINCIPAL CHURCH IN PERM.

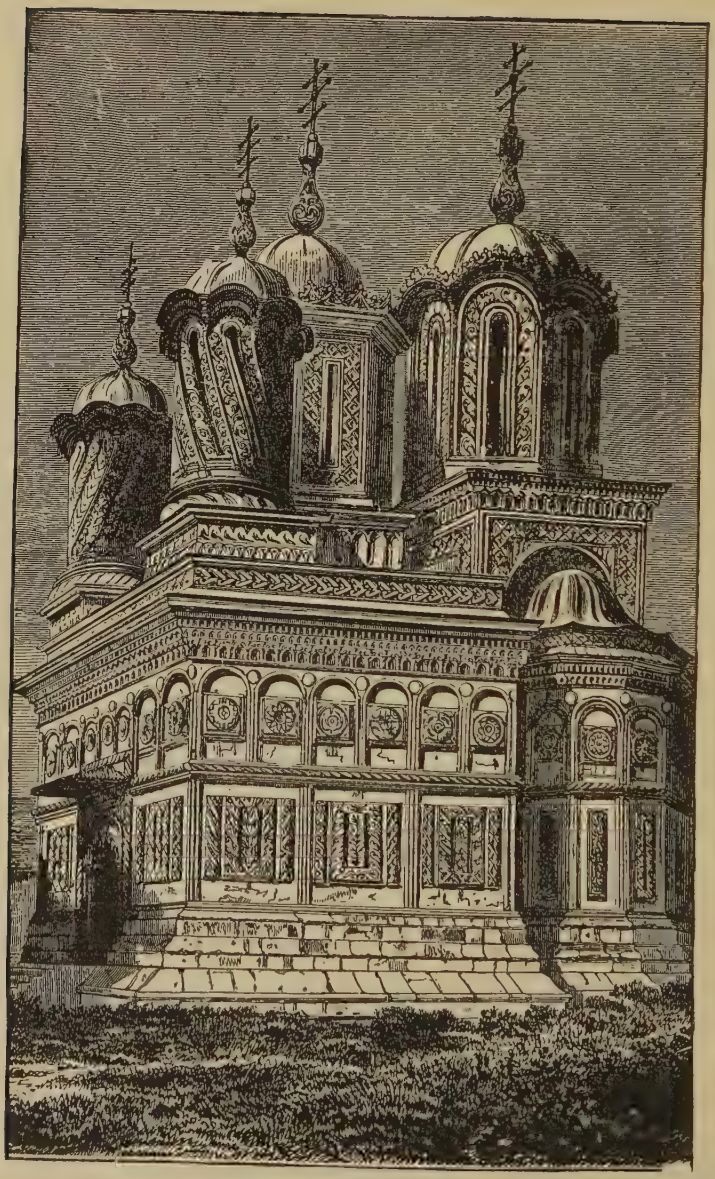
sisted that the passage at Nijni Tagilsk was preferable, besides it would prove immediately remunerative by reason of the large amount of mineral which would

be shipped from the Demidoff mines at Ekaterineburg. These reports were followed by a long period of indecision on the part of the Emperor, who finally spoke so favorably of both routes that he promised to give them government assistance. The construction of a railway from Perm was begun first, and in 1878 it was opened for traffic from Perm across the Urals to Ekaterineberg, a distance of three hundred miles. Work progressed more slowly on the southern route, and when the Emperor died it ceased entirely, before any portion of the road was ready for business.

Perm, like all other Russian cities, is chiefly conspicuous for its churches, which abound on every side and are the most ornate feature of the place.

I left Perm on Monday morning, and began my journey across the Urals, which I had supposed were a range of high mountain peaks perpetually covered with snow. I was therefore very much astonished to find them hardly more than ordinary hills, the highest point in the range being only 5000 feet above sea level. The scenery was also very disappointing, as there was scarcely any vegetation visible except a forest of slender pines, with here and there a larch that seemed too lonesome for healthy growth.

At eight o'clock in the evening we had passed over the mountains, almost without knowing it, and stopped at Nijni Tagilsk, where I left the train to visit the great Demidoff mines of copper, malachite and iron. This place, which is the gateway to Asia, lies within the Siberian line, and is very prettily situated at the base of the Ural range. It is an important commercial town of sixty thousand inhabitants, most of whom are engaged in mining. Nearly all of Russia's iron is produced here, and among the manufactured products Russia-Iron (the



RUSSIAN CHURCH IN TAGILSK.

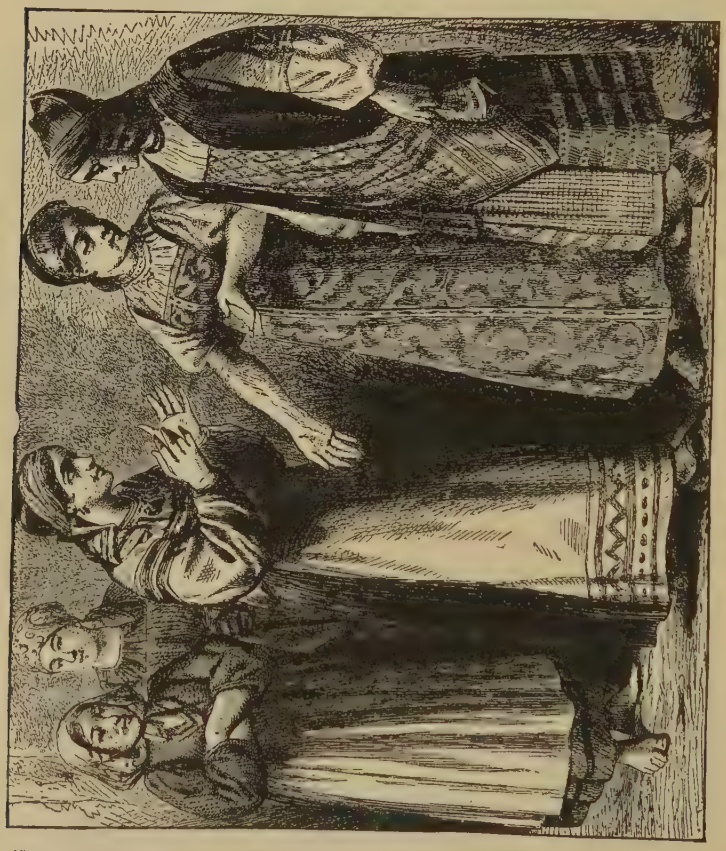
process of which is a secret known only to Tagilsk manufacturers) is the principal article. Many years ago the mines were operated by convict labor, but Prince Demidoff purchased them from the Government, since which time they have been worked by paid miners and forgers. There is a beautiful granite monument, surmounted by a bronze statue of Prince Demidoff, in the southern part of the city.

Remaining over at Tagilsk one day, I proceeded by rail to Ekaterineburg, which is another town built in an immense mineral district, but the principal product is malachite. From Tagilsk to Ekaterineburg the railroad runs along the mountain base; on one side hills green with pines, and on the other a level plain stretching away until it meets the horizon, with scarcely an object to relieve its solitary wilderness of almost boundless expanse.

The city contains a population of thirty thousand, but more Asiatic than Russian. I was rejoiced to find three Americans, residents of the place, with whom I became acquainted, much to my advantage. These mines, which also belong to the Demidoff descendants, are very interesting, particularly to those who have never witnessed malachite mining. This mineral, of which I never saw any specimens in America, is very precious, selling at the mines at from $1 to $5 per pound, according to the size of the pieces. When polished, the stone presents an almost emerald green and is very hard.

The Demidoffs pay annually, in taxes to the Government and Commune, $100,000, and employ 50,000 laborers. Before the emancipation they owned 56,000 male serfs, a large number of whom still remain on their original estates and work in the mines, but receive ridiculously small pay, compared with wages in America. Common laborers receive about twenty cents a day; puddlers seventy-five cents, and the best rollers $1.25.

During my short stay in Ekaterineburg I saw many strange sights, but none which excited my curiosity more than the women, whom I met in great numbers on the streets. Generally speaking, they were quite handsome, with features somewhat like their Georgian sisters in the



WOMEN OF EKATERINEBURG.

South Caucasus. But their good looks were hardly se interesting as the curious costumes they wore, and tho street manners which they affected. It was a strange blending of the European and Asiatic.

Siberia is rich in precious stones, and Ekaterineburg is famous for its lapidists. Very near the town are found beryl, topaz, aqua marine, chrysolite, and other gems of great beauty, which are cut and set by jewelers in the city and sold at prices which I regarded as wonderfully cheap.

CHAPTER XII.

After visiting the malachite mines in Ekaterineburg, I instructed my guide to engage a vehicle to carry us on to Tieumen, which was to be our next stopping place. He was gone for some time, and upon returning told me that it would be necessary to show my special permit to the authorities before a vehicle could be secured. Thus far I had only to show my regular passport, but now I produced the special permit given me at St. Petersburg. As the reading matter on it was in Russian (of which I was as ignorant as of the hieroglyphics on Cheops) I had little idea what request it contained. My guide, who could speak but not read the language, took the paper to an officer, who told us it was a *podorojna*, or permit from the Government to pass freely in and out of Siberia, and also containing an order, addressed to all post-keepers, to facilitate me in my journey by providing such conveyances as I might desire. We were now intelligently informed of what to do, so in the evening we engaged a *tarantass* and *yemstchik* for our journey; the former is a four-wheeled vehicle setting low like a phæton, and having a large cover behind, which may be raised or lowered at will. It is light, but drawn by three horses, the middle one working between shafts over which there is a

douga, or broad bow, to which bells are often attached; the outside horses work in traces, one of which is fastened to a shaft and the other to the end of the spindle, which extends about three inches outside the hub of the front wheel. *Yemstchik* simply means *driver*

I had engaged this outfit with the expectation of starting for Tieumen on the following morning, but this arrangement did not suit either the owner or driver, who insisted on an immediate departure or pay for the time

THE TARANTASS.

lost. It was now almost eight o'clock, but as Capt. Spicer, who was still with me, felt no hesitancy about proceeding at such an unseemly hour, we made ready and took our places in the vehicle. Our guide sat beside the *yemstchik*, while Spicer and I occupied the one large seat inside. Before leaving, however, we contracted to pay two cents a verst, equivalent to three cents per mile, for the driver and conveyance, a sum which we thought was very cheap.

The sun had now sunk well down behind the Ural hills —I can't help calling them hills because they are nothing more—when, with a crack of the whip and an expression

which nothing but a Siberian horse could understand, we darted off in a cloud of dust, through the town and out upon the great waste of a wonderful country. My feelings were not altogether pleasant, for so strange did everything appear that, despite myself, visions of wild Tartar hordes, under some modern Genghis Khan, would dart up in my imagination, to dispute our way; or else an unfamiliar sound would strike my ear like the bark of a famished wolf calling his pack to the pursuit.

Along we flew in a swift gallop without for a moment slacking pace, passing no one, nor having our imageries relieved by any pleasing scenery; nothing but a level, illimitable expanse of prairie; no farms, no baying dogs, no lowing cattle nor squealing swine; the voice of nature was as mute as the songs of the dead. Thus we journeyed for more than two hours, when through the riven clouds there broke out a flood of moonlight by which we saw ahead the outlines of a house. It was the first post-station out of Ekaterineburg; our *yemstchik* drove into the yard on a dash and then shouting *stoi* to his horses, he stopped with such suddenness that my companion and I were thrown forward against the driver's seat.

We did not delay here long, taking only sufficient time to change horses and drink a glass of tea. In this connection I wish to say that nowhere in the world can such tea be had as in Russia or Siberia. I have drunk this delightful beverage in nearly all parts of the world, including San Francisco, where I indulged my love for it in a Chinese restaurant, and my opinion is that the Chinese make the poorest, while the Russians make the best tea to be found anywhere in the world. The excellence of the tea made in Russia is partly, if not wholly, due, as they themselves claim, to the fact that tea shipped over water loses much of its flavor and essential quality.

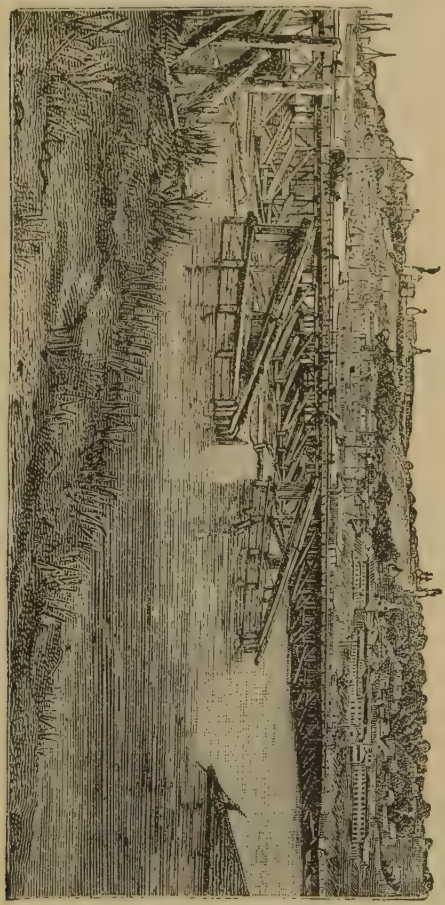
All tea used in Russia is brought over-land from the Chinese provinces, generally packed in the shape of bricks and exposed to the atmosphere, there being a belief that if packed in cases it loses much of its natural excellence. Everybody drinks tea in Russia; if you enter the home of either prince or peasant in that country you are at once invited to drink tea. A vessel called a *Samovar* is in every house, which is kept constantly heated, in which tea is made always ready for use. Tea therefore is the great national drink; but there is also a spirits, distilled from potatoes, called *Vodka*, which is something like the Irish *poteen*, that is a very popular drink among the peasantry and priesthood. So, whether entertained in the home of an *Ispravnik*—a Russian Governor—or stopping at a Siberian post-station, you will be called on to slake thirst, either in a tipple of *vodka* or a glass of tea—tea cups are not used.

After less than a half-hour's delay we were called to take our places in the vehicle again, when cheerily our driver cracked his whip over the fretting ponies' heads, and sent them off in a run that at first nearly took our breaths.

It was now almost midnight, but still the gray streaks of day and bright lustre of a noble moon were with us. In fact at this season of the year there is scarcely any night in the latitude I was now travelling. Tired with so much pounding as I had been subjected to for several hours, my eyes grew languid, but it seemed that each time I began to doze, in my compulsory bolt upright position, our driver would run us over a log with such disturbing force that I either plunged into my companion or he into me. In fact we had to keep awake that we might not butt one another's brains out.

We continued in this rapid, hurly-burly, jerking,

wretchedly uncomfortable style of traveling for forty-one hours, having changed horses about every two hours, when at last we reached Tieumen, which is two hundred and five miles from Ekaterineberg. I was so sore, stiff and exhausted when we arrived at Tieumen that I felt like a Fakir who, to do penance for some imaginary sin, assumes one position without changing, until all his joints ossify and refuse to articulate. The first thing I wanted was everything at once, viz.: a bath, something to eat, a bed, mustard plasters for my back and knees, ice-water to drink; and above all, I wanted to know how to get back again to Ekaterineburg without having to travel in the manner I had come.



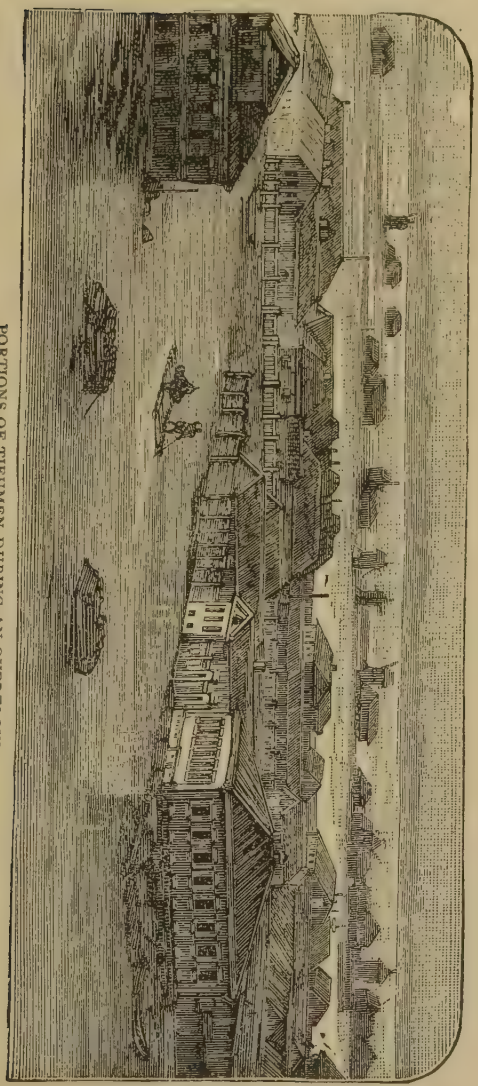
VIEW OF TIEUMEN.

Fortunately it was only a little after mid-day when we arrived, and dinner was ready; so I quickly washed my face, after first rubbing a long, broad, deep crick out of

my back so I could bend over, and then fell to with voracious greed to devour — *black-bread and salt*. It's a way they have in that country. It must, undoubtedly, be the product of some religious inspiration, for I can't imagine anything else potential enough to curtail the diet so extravagantly; but whatever the cause, black-bread (which is eaten after a thick layer of salt is spread over it) and tea constitute almost the exclusive diet of the native Siberians. By dint of expostulation and particularly by promises of a large reward, I obtained a piece of steak, which was as succulent and tender as any I ever before ate. It is astonishing how these people subsist on so limited a diet, and my wonder was all the more increased when I learned that choice steaks can be had for four cents a pound, while fish are even cheaper. There is very little agriculture in Siberia, the occupations chiefly followed being mining, inn keeping, fishing and raising stock. Immense herds of horses and cattle roam all over the country, the property of herdsmen who raise them for export, home consumption being scarcely thought of.

I was so completely used up, so to speak, that after dinner I called to the landlord to show me a bed, into which I soon cast my wearied body and soul. After a two hours' rest, I awakened and, though still in an exhausted condition, reflected upon how precious was my time, arose, took another glass of tea, and sauntered out into the city in quest of information.

Tieumen is situated on the Tura river, which flows by the Tobol into the Irtysh and Obi, and it is at this point that steamboat conveyance is taken to those rivers, and to the towns of Tobolsk, Omsk and Tomsk. The town is subject to great overflows every spring when the ice breaks up, and gorging below the bridge sometimes



PORTIONS OF TJEUMEN DURING AN OVERFLOW.

inundates the whole city. It has a population of 16,000, with thriving manufactories of iron, earthenware, glass, cloth, carpets and leather; but the houses are mostly built of wood, and the place has a mean and dreary aspect. It is in one respect the most important town in western Siberia, for it is here that all the prisoners are first brought before their distribution to the penal settlements and mines further east. There is one building in the city, devoted to educational purposes, which cost $100,000, and is the finest structure in all Siberia; two specially important facts connected with this institution are, that it was built by a man who started with nothing, has acquired a large fortune in Siberia, and donated the building to the Government; the other peculiarity is found in the building being furnished throughout with American furniture, as is also the home of the liberal donor.

I found also here in Tieumen an American gentleman who very kindly introduced me to the Governor and several other functionaries, with whom I became intimate enough to announce the object of my visit and to request of them such information as I needed.

To a question which I asked the Governor respecting the origin of punishment of offenders by exile, he made answer:

"I do not know exactly when the practice begun, but a well-known writer, M. Reclus, says the first degree of banishment was promulgated by Boris Godunoff when, in 1591, he sent nearly five hundred of the Uglitch insurrectionists into exile, locating them not far from Tieumen. This story, however, is more traditional than historical, though it may be true. But it is an established fact that near the close of the seventeenth century several thousand of Little Russians, who had revolted in the

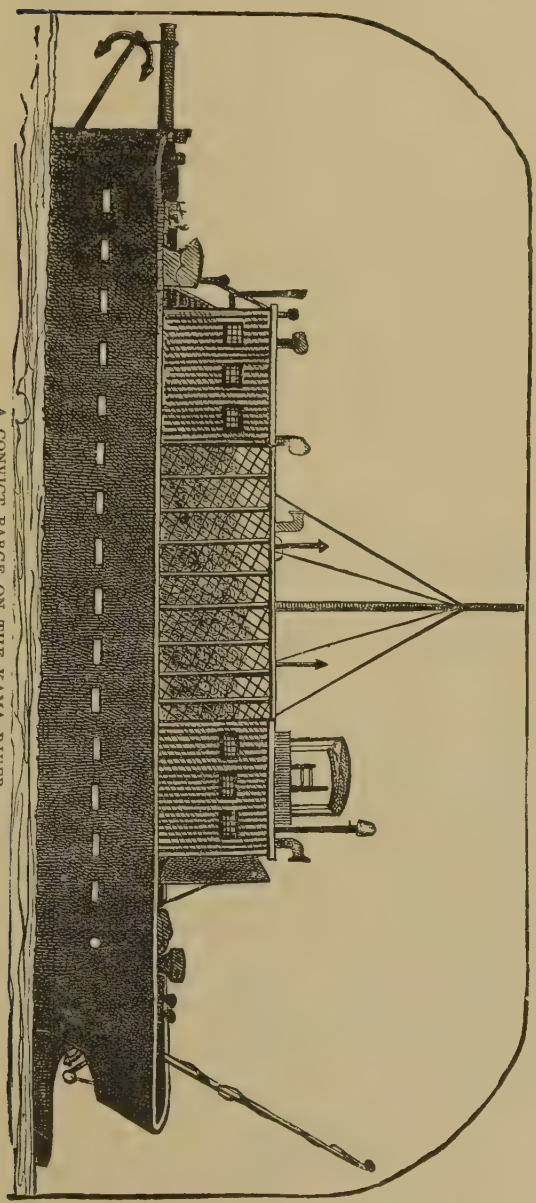
Ukarine and were overcome by Great Russia, were sent, in chains, to various parts of Siberia. After this, transportation for all manner of serious offenses became common. A large number of religious dissenters, with their families, were deported in 1682, and compelled to settle in the Baikal district. Peter the Great also banished many of the Strelitz, a tribe from southern Russia, who were so wedded to bows and arrows that they refused to use any other arms. They caused no little trouble by their treachery, and finally rebelled against their sovereign. During the reign of Elizabeth many distinguished persons, accused of political unfaithfulness, were sent to the far eastern provinces, among whom were Tolstoi, Munich, Menchikoff, Dolgornki, Biron, &c., who were afterward permitted to return. In 1758 began the first deportation of Poles, but under Catharine II. thousands of these unhappy people were thrust into exile. Nine hundred, who had served under Napoleon, were convicted of treason and sent to the Yakoutsk district. In 1826 three thousand Decembrists, who tried to assassinate Nicholas and provide a constitution, were sent to Siberia, followed in 1830 by a deportation of 80,000 Poles."

The original idea of Godunoff, which was to use Siberia as a place of punishment, grew into a fixed purpose under Nicholas I. and Alexander II., to not only banish offenders merely to punish them, but to make banishment a means for settling Siberia. They very correctly argued that here was a larger portion of the Empire, rich in minerals and boundless in agricultural possibilities, lying idle because none would settle in it. They therefore concluded to enforce an industrial occupation of the country. To this end not only were murderers and political offenders sent to Siberia, but colonies were established by the

deportation of those guilty of petty crimes. A privilege was given the peasantry to establish village courts, called *Zemsta,* to which they might summon, or forcibly take, any one of their number charged with being untrue or improvident, incorrigibly bad, lazy, a common drunkard, or village nuisance, and upon conviction he could be sent to Siberia. This practice was very extensive a few years ago, and is not uncommon now. Such convicts, however, are not held, as prisoners, to any special labor, but are sent to increase colonies that pursue any calling they choose to obtain a living.

The Governor further told me that there are thirty-four offenses punishable by transportation to Siberia. The first and greatest crime in Russia is treason, which is punished by execution, but for no other crime is the death penalty inflicted. The following offenses are punished by exile: insubordination to lawful authority; stealing official documents; escape or abetting the escape of prisoners; embezzlement of Government funds; forgery; blasphemy (though it is a dead-letter law); dissent and heresy (rarely enforced); sheltering or giving aid to escaping convicts; counterfeiting; being taken on suspicion and found without a passport; vagrancy, coupled with suspicious conduct; murder or accessory thereto; attempted suicide; mayhem; assault with deadly weapon; seduction and rape; subornation; illegal holding or transfer of property; arson; burglary; theft; horse-stealing; debt; dishonoring the Emperor's name; assuming false titles; beastiality; usury or extortion (rarely enforced, though a common offense); eluding military service; smuggling; illicit distilling; and the practices of the Scoptsi, of which I will write fully hereafter, when describing their settlement.

I was told that for the past ten years, the number of



A CONVICT BARGE ON THE KAMA RIVER.

exiles sent annually to Siberia was about 20,000, of which 12,000 are sent to the eastern district under sentence of hard labor in the mines. I was permitted to visit the Tieumen prison, in which there were confined nearly five hundred prisoners, awaiting orders to be sent further east. Of these five hundred there were nearly one hundred who could read and write. This indicates the intelligence of the criminals sent into exile. It is a statistical fact that of Russia's entire population only *five per cent.* can read and write, the lowest average of education to be found in any civilized country on the globe. Now, when we compare this fact with the prisoners at Tieumen, of whom twenty per cent. could read and write, we are forced to the irresistible conclusion that Russia's criminals are from her best educated people.

All prisoners sent from Moscow are taken by rail to Nijni-Novgorod, where they embark on a barge, which is towed by steamer to Perm. This barge is built expressly for the purpose and will carry from seven to eight hundred.

From Perm they are transported by rail to Ekaterineberg, and from that point they are taken to Tieumen by wagons. Why they are not required to walk this latter distance I cannot understand, particularly since beyond Tieumen the prisoners are compelled to walk to whatever place they are destined, which is not generally less than 2,000 miles further east. Sometimes it occurs that there is special haste to get the prisoners to Irkoutsk or Yakoutsk mines, before severe weather begins in the fall, and for purposes of expedition they are taken by barge on the Irtysh and Obi to Tomsk, from which latter place, however, they must walk voluntarily or be driven like refractory brutes under the stinging lash.

On the morning after my arrival in Tieumen, as I had been told by the Governor the previous evening, a party of three hundred prisoners were taken out of their

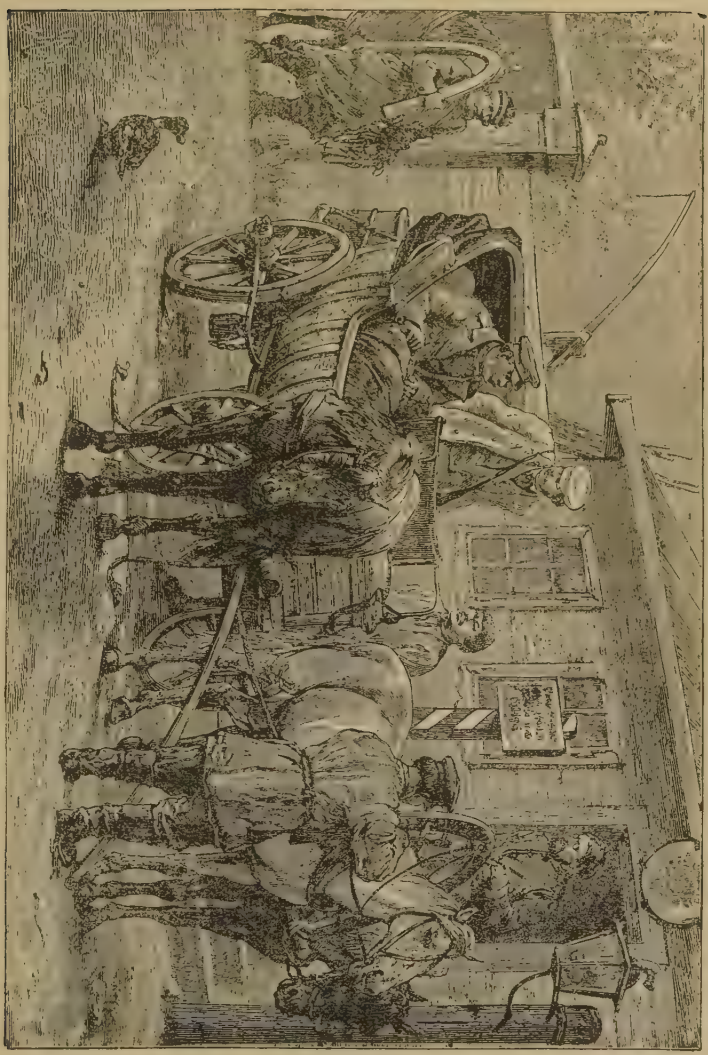
PRISONERS LEAVING TIEUMEN FOR EASTERN SIBERIA.

stockade and started to Chita, which is a penal settlement in the Trans-Baikal. It was raining very hard, but the elements were not permitted to interfere with the

programme. About fifty soldiers acted as convoy-guard, who marched out on foot in two files with the exiles between them, followed by weeping women and a large number of curious citizens. At the suburbs of the place horses were in waiting for the soldiers, but there was nothing but a hard, foot journey before the unfortunate prisoners, about one-third of whom carried heavy chains on their wrists and ankles. I was affected almost to tears by the sight, every phase of which was inexpressibly sad.

I stayed over at Tieumen one day longer to gather some additional facts and wait for more clement weather. Capt. Spicer had intended to leave me here and start by tarantass northward, but concluded to accompany me to Tobolsk, where he could take a steamer on the Irtysh, and have a journey to the Gulf of Obi, from which point he decided to begin skirting Siberia across to Kamschatka. On the following day we engaged a new kind of conveyance, as from appearance it promised more comfort than we had found in the tarantass. This vehicle was what the Russians call a *tumbril;* I suppose they derive the name from the English *tumble*, because it goes tumbling over the road like an acrobat, bounding up in dreadful jerks and coming down like a pile driver.

A small steamer plies between Tieumen and Tobolsk, but at uncertain intervals, and gets through with greater uncertainty, so we adopted the overland route and started about three o'clock in the afternoon. The road was very muddy and our progress slow, which saved us from the sore affliction we suffered in the rapid tarantass. At the first station we halted to change horses, the post-keeper told us that the roads were almost impassable and that a creek, five versts further on, was so swollen that crossing would be very dangerous. Nevertheless we con-



TRAVELING BY TUMBRIL.—CHANGING HORSES AT A POST-STATION.

cluded to push on and meet whatever adventure chance might visit upon us. We drove with all possible speed, in order to reach the creek before darkness set in, as absence of light always multiplies dangers. We arrived at the stream about seven o'clock and found it rushing madly over its banks, carrying driftwood of logs, trees, brush, etc., so that our resolution gave way and we thought of returning to the post-station to spend the night. Before deciding finally, however, a *moujik*—local resident peasant—appeared, whom we accosted and asked if there were any ferry-boat available that could set us across. He admitted that much danger would be incurred in an attempt to pass the stream, but agreed to get a boat, which lay moored one mile further up the creek, and set us over for five roubles. This proposition at once decided us, and without further delay we drove up to where the boat lay and prepared to embark. The boat was a flat scow with gunwales not more than a foot out of water, and that it had been put to much service was evidenced by the rot that had struck in and weakened every board about it. The horses were so tractable, fortunately, that no difficulty was experienced in getting afloat. The *moujik* used a long pole to push the boat off, but once getting started, our frail craft begun to spin around like leaves in a whirlwind. It now looked doubtful about getting across without swimming, but manfully we all pushed with poles, by which we managed to near the opposite shore about six miles below the point from whence we started. Prospects were brightening every moment, when suddenly our boat struck a projecting log — they are called sawyers by Mississippi river pilots — and before we could shift our cuds of tobacco, over we went, tumbril, horses and men, into the water, while the boat, bottom side up, went on down the

stream, still spinning around like a graceful coquette who has just jilted her lover. It so happened that the water, where we were capsized, was not more than three feet deep, and we were able to keep our feet. My first act was to grab two of the horses by their bridles, while Capt. Spicer and our two men seized the tumbril and righted it; by skilful and instantaneous action we prevented the horses from becoming tangled, and soon had the satisfaction of getting on shore with no other inconvenience than wet clothing. But our more serious difficulty was yet to come, for it had now grown quite dark and was still threatening rain. We had landed and were on solid earth, but our surroundings were something like the jungles of Central Africa. There was no semblance of a road leading out of this swampy, brush-grown place, nor did we have so much as a match to light our way. But, figuratively speaking, shutting our eyes and trusting to Providence, we started the horses along in the direction we supposed the road lay. After about one hour or more of this delightful pic-nicing excursion in the garden of the gods, we found ourselves—lost. I had a compass in my pocket, but it might as well have been on top of the north-pole, for having neither a light nor the eyes of a nocturnal varmint, we "couldn't see the point." With nothing but wet clothes and wetter blankets our condition was similar to that which the man fell into who invented a new oath. But, as if dissatisfied with our circumstances, old Pluvius pulled out the stop-cocks of heaven and deluged us with a rain of nearly six hours duration, while the frogs, between dashes of rain, croaked all manner of requiems around about us. If a pack of wolves had descended upon us about this time I would have gladly assisted them to ravish my body, and yet every strange sound that seemed to presage an attack

from these chronically hungry desperadoes, produced a momentary fear that made us forget our other misery.

Nothing could be done except face the artillery of misfortune, so we unhitched the horses and made them fast to our vehicle. Then came the rub of standing round and taking turns in saying such bad words as a distressed soul may be inspired to utter under the circumstances.

Morning broke at last, but such a morning as would shame creation, for the rain still poured down, until what wasn't mud was water, and what wasn't water was a distillation of exquisite melancholy. Frozen and drowned though we were, there was still enough aggravation left in our natures to stimulate us to renewed endeavors to get out of the woods—or purgatory, which is a more appropriate term.

So confused were we by the desperate experience undergone that wretched night that it was late in the afternoon before we found the road again, and when we did find it there was nothing to make us proud except the realization that we still lived. Through mud up to the axles we plodded along, hungry, exhausted, wet, mad and intensely miserable, until twelve o'clock the following night before reaching the next station. So thoroughly worn out was I that upon entering the station I threw myself upon a bench and did not stir again until morning, though the master tried every way to arouse and direct me to a comfortable bed. The opiate of exhaustion was so powerful, in fact, that I no longer felt the wet clothes that were on me, or took time to wish I was in dear America.

Renewing our journey about noon, the sun came out again, and we gradually forgot the miseries through which we had passed and began to find, one by one, some little pleasures in life. The roads also gradually became

more tolerable, while along the highway we met occasional groups of Tartars, and passed through Tartar villages which presented many whimsical characteristics. In Siberia (where less than one-fifth the population is Russian) as in Russia, we found images of the Madonna hung up over doors, in windows, on walls, nailed to posts, strung up before ordinary village notices, and, in short, we found them everywhere, while little candles were burning before them all. The Tartars are very numerous throughout Siberia and are proud of their history, which is crowded with adventure and red with blood. They are the same people as those who, under Genghis Khan, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, overran all of northern Asia and then penetrated Russia, striking the Muscovites such strong blows that they almost accomplished the conquest of that nation.

The Tartar women still hold to the ancient Moslem practice of wearing veils over their faces when strangers are near, which, I must say, is very kind of them, for as a stranger I speak, who having seen some few Tartar faces, am very thankful that I was not permitted to see more; a Chinese god is beautiful when brought in comparison with the most distinguished Tartar belle.

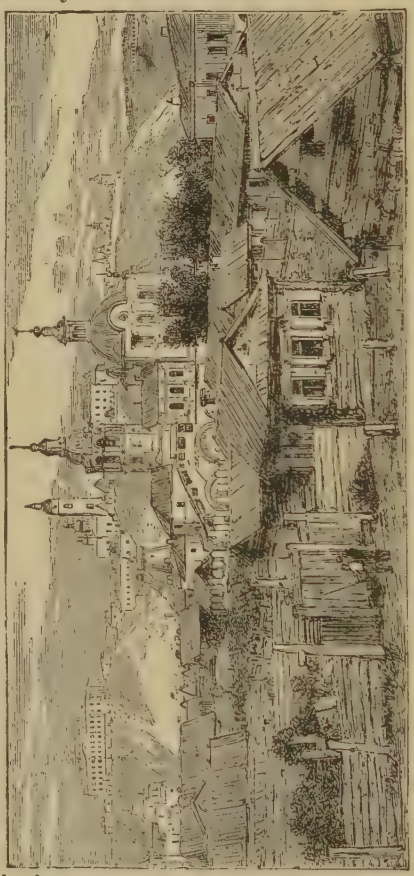
CHAPTER XIII.

Tobolsk is but little more than one day's journey from Tieumen by steamer, but we encountered so many difficulties that it was more than two days before we reached the city, though the distance by land is but little more than half what it is by water.

I had now reached one of the great Siberian prisons,

and my investigations became more interesting here because of immediate contact with some initiatory horrors which previous study and reading had partly prepared me for.

Tobolsk is a city of nearly 40,000 inhabitants and was the first capital of Siberia, the whole of that enormous territory being acquired in seventy years of the seventeenth century. The town was originally built on a high hill, having precipitous sides, and around it was a strong wall over the ramparts of which still glisten and frown several large cannons. Entrance to this part of the city is through fortress gates, to gain which passage must be made up a steep, winding roadway. As the town grew, for lack of space on the hill, building began on the plain below, until now the lower portion of the city is larger and more regularly built than that on the hill.



UPPER AND LOWER TOWNS OF TOBOLSK.

The population of Tobolsk is composed of Russians, Tartars and Germans, the latter race being much more

numerous than circumstances permitted me to believe until I had thoroughly convinced myself. They are an object of bitter prejudice to the Russians, who very frequently visit upon them rank injustice; knowing this, I was very much surprised that the Germans composed nearly one-sixth of the entire population. Being somewhat familiar with the German language, I found it now very serviceable to me, for I secured introductions to several prominent persons of that nationality who took much pains to make my visit both pleasant and profitable.

In Upper Tobolsk is a fine and celebrated cathedral, near which is hung on a tripod the Uglitch bell, with which is connected a singular history, to this effect: The bell was orginally in the turret of a cathedral in Uglitch, Russia, where, for many years, it called the faithful to assemble for worship. But in 1591 a great insurrection took place in Uglitch, against the Czar Godunoff, on which occasion the rebels used this bell to signal their uprising and attack upon the Goverment officers. These insurrectionists were very strong in numbers, and were not overpowered for several months, but when their subjection was at last accomplished, Boris Godunoff issued an order of punishment against the bell, in obedience to which it was thrown down from the turret, its ears were broken off, and then a company of men were made to publicly flog it. To this was added a decree of banishment, so that the bell was taken, with several thousand of the insurrectionists sent into exile, to the district of Tobolsk. The disgrace which thus fell upon the bell for aiding the rebels, has been so far removed now that it is again used for calling Muscovites to prayers.

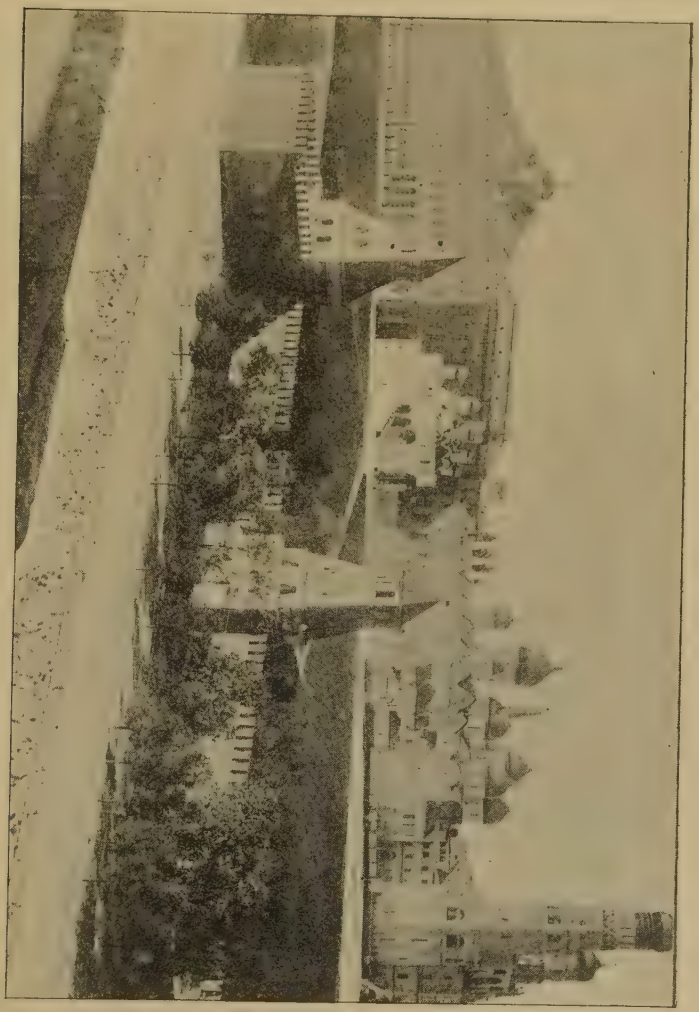
There is very little of interest to be seen in Tobolsk outside the prisons, which are three in number, and generally contain from 1,000 to 1,200 prisoners. They are

located near a large pleasure garden, and directly under a commanding view from the fortress. I managed to secure an introduction to the chief prison guard, who being able to speak a little German readily answered such inquiries as I addressed to him, and also, after much persuasion and the gift of several roubles, finally gave me permission to go inside the prisons. This privilege was much more than I had expected, but I soon learned from experience that a few roubles, judicously used, could be made a magical sesame that would open any door in Russia.

The buildings are of brick with small, square windows, provided with double glass to keep out the cold. As I entered, two guards stepped forward with fixed bayonets and followed me wherever I went in the prison. The chief officer also accompanied me, and from him I learned that Tobolsk was formerly the station to which all hard-labor convicts were sent, but as mines became developed further east the prisons here are now used to confine convicts one year before sending them eastward; it is only a comparatively small number who are detained at Tobolsk at all, those in confinement being criminals who have committed some new offense while on the transport route, or convicts who have been retaken after an attempt to escape.

Large workshops adjoined the prisons, in which all those able to labor were busily employed; there were shoemakers, tailors, wagon-makers, cabinet-makers, etc. All these were compelled to perform a certain amount of labor each day or be *knouted*, which is no more than a playful frolic between the flogger and his victim—according to Mr. Lansdell, the philanthropist. This method of punishment, though ostensibly abolished, is inflicted on some poor convict at the Tobolsk prisons every day, as

several citizens assured me. A gentleman who had witnessed several such floggings, described the process as



KREMLIN PALACE.

follows: The culprit is taken to a room where there is a large pillar, to which two rings are attached at an ele-

vation of about seven feet from the floor. Here he is stripped entirely, but a light cloth is placed about his loins, not as an act of clemency, however, but of decency; the poor victim, now panting and quivering at the ordeal which he anticipates, is then bound about the wrists with strong cords which are drawn up and fastened to the rings, raising him almost off his feet. Two professional floggers now enter the room in response to a summons, bearing knouts in their hands. These instruments of torture, rather than punishment, are composed of several rawhide thongs bound together at one end in a handle one foot long; each thong terminates in a knot, which serves the purpose of giving additional force to each stroke and of greatly increasing the punishment by bruising the flesh where each knot strikes. The floggers begin their work generally by flourishing the knout several times about their heads without striking the victim, so as to take him by surprise, as it is believed a keener agony is produced by striking when the victim is least expecting it. When the whipping begins, however, it is laid on by the floggers alternately, who strike all over the body, so as to produce the largest surface of suffering. With every stroke either several great blue welts rise under the thongs, or, if the flesh be particularly tender, gashes are made from whence streams of blood pour. But it is said there is less suffering from cuts than bruises, the former healing up rapidly, while the latter not infrequently fester and cause an illness from which many die. There are hundreds of instances, however, where men and women have died under the administration, and in nearly all cases where as many as one hundred lashes are given, the victim becomes unconscious and does not revive for hours afterward.

Among the workmen I noticed not a few who wore

chains similar to those I saw on the prisoners at Moscow. Upon inquiry respecting the cause of this, an intelligent guard told me, through my interpreter, that the prisoners thus subjected to additional punishment were criminals who had been convicted of aggravated offenses, such as unprovoked murder or serious political crimes, and that the sentence they were under was hard labor for a long period of years (or for life) and without mercy.

A CONVICT LABORER IN IRONS.

Through curiosity I approached very near a half-dozen or more of these shackled convicts, so that the effects of their chains were plainly visible; in some instances large abrasions were noticed on their wrists, which must have given extreme pain, while in others the flesh under the galling irons was so black as to give an appearance of mortification. I could not discover what effect the heavy anklets had, as large, extremely coarse socks hid the flesh, but from outward indications I should judge the ankles were badly swollen. When at work, the wrists of these convicts were bound with a chain which gave about two feet of free action to the hands, but when not at labor the wrists were brought together and fastened; in addition to this, a strong leathern strap was attached from the wrist bindings to double chains on the legs and ankles, so that the hands were confined in one position; hard labor was far more preferable than idleness, when bound in such heartless manner.

Women convicts were subjected to as severe treatment

as the men, except their labor was hardly so taxing. They were chiefly employed scouring the prisons, cooking, and washing clothes, but I noticed a few who were engaged in making baskets and polishing leather. Their sex did not exempt them from the knout or plete. This latter instrument of punishment is made of several short but thick birches tied together at one end, the others being left loose so as to strike in several places on the flesh at each blow.

Having passed through the prisons, I had now seen quite enough of Tobolsk, and made my preparations to leave for Tomsk. Capt. Spicer had already left me the day after our arrival in Tobolsk, taking steamer for some destination on the Obi, which he himself had not finally decided upon. The guide whom we had employed at Moscow also accompanied him, to my great satisfaction, for I had long since learned that, besides knowing but little of the Russian language, he was incontinently stupid, and his services were by no means satisfying. Capt. Spicer, however, was an old Arctic whaler, and was now going among the Esquimaux, whose tongue he could speak; he was therefore content to take the guide with him as a servant.

I had no difficulty in securing another interpreter in the person of a German named Schleuter, who was a resident of Tobolsk, speaking the Russ, Tartar, Samoyede, Gilyak, and other languages used by the various tribes of north and eastern Siberia; he had also made several trips across the continent, and was well versed in all the characteristics of both country and people. This engagement was a particularly fortunate one, for through Schleuter I obtained much information which, without his services, must have remained undisclosed to me.

My experience with the tarantass and the tumbril,

CITY OF TOBOLSK FROM THE RIVER IRTYSH.

I must confess, greatly prejudiced me against them as modes of conveyance, and as there was a tri-weekly service of paddle-wheel steamers between Tobolsk and Tomsk, I decided to travel to the latter city by boat. Accordingly, in obedience to my instructions, Schleuter purchased such things as we might need on the trip, and on Wednesday afternoon we embarked for a six days' voyage to Tomsk. As we backed out into the stream—the Irtysh River—a beautiful view of Tobolsk was had, reminding me of the appearance I had conceived of middle century castles inhabited by the lords of rich manors, with hundreds of outbuildings for the shelter of their subjects. This creation was intensified by a recollection of the country in which I was now traveling, and by the peculiar features and faces that surrounded me.

There were perhaps one hundred and twenty-five passengers on the steamer, but of this number not more than twenty occupied first-class accommodations. My interpreter was quite willing to travel second-class (the fare being fourteen roubles), but I preferred that he should go first-class so that I might have the benefit of his company constantly, particularly as the first-class fare was only twenty roubles ($10.00). But this passage money did not include table fare, which amounted to about $1.25 each per day.

I have seen no little gambling in my life, but never before did I make a journey on a steamer where all the passengers were gamblers. As all Russia is a tea drinking nation, so are all Russian subjects inveterate card players. In fact the national laws foster gaming, for the Government has a monopoly of card manufacturing, the revenue from which is applied to the support of the foundling asylums at Moscow and St. Petersburg.

Night and day all the passengers, men and women,

were busily engaged throwing cards in a game I never saw played before, but which resembled "Napoleon," a game quite common in England, in which the players lay wagers on how many tricks they can take.

But except at night, when I backed Schleuter in a game, I was too much interested in the scenery to take any interest in cards. After we passed out of the Irtysh into the Obi river our steamer made more frequent landings and an opportunity was had to learn something of Northern Siberia. At the towns of Shapsink, Sahabinsk, Solkin and Surgat we met hundreds of Ostjaks, who are a race of people inhabiting the northern portion of the Tobolsk and Tomsk Governments. They live by fishing and hunting, chiefly by the former, and are as filthy in their person as the Digger Indians of New Mexico. They swarmed about our boat wherever we landed and besought the passengers to buy their fish and game; ducks they sold at ten kopecks (five cents) a brace; grouse at fifty kopecks (twenty-five cents) a pair; while fish were so cheap that an American would not receive them as a gift and peddle them at a Negro barbecue at such prices; sturgeons, which is perhaps the best fish found in Siberian waters, were offered at two kopecks (one cent) per pound, or a fish weighing ten pounds might have been purchased, by a little higgling, for about seven cents. Many other species of fish were offered at one-half cent per pound.

These Ostjaks take all their fish from the upper streams in winter time, their mode of fishing being as follows: A hole is cut through the ice, over which a spring rod is placed, having several lines and baited hooks. Little balls of clay are heated and thrown into the stream, which cause the fish to rise from hollow beds in the river, where they collect in schools. When the fish move out of their

places they invariably swim some distance up stream at which time they see the bait and take it with great vora-

RUSSIANIZED OSTJAKS.

ciousness. Sometimes a dozen lines set in this way will take as many as a dozen fish at one time. After the fish

are caught they are packed and frozen, in which condition they are sent to all parts of Russia, or sold at inns and to passengers along the steam or post-routes.

The Ostjaks, who number about 30,000, inhabit that portion of Siberia lying between the rivers Irtysh and Obi, and as far north as Obdorsk. They are nomadic and live in a diffused state in tents which they call *youts*.

The Obi is a stream of considerable width, and its course lies through a plain without even once passing a moderate sized hill. The scenery is therefore very monotonous, and but for the peculiar people met with there would be nothing on the water-route between Tobolsk and Tomsk—1,600 miles—to excite the least interest.

CHAPTER XIV.

We arrived at Tomsk late Tuesday night, and so anxious was I to leave the steamer, which had been little more than a prison to me, that I called to Schleuter and had him prepare for immediate debarkation. We engaged a droshky and drove to a hotel, the Russian name of which I have forgotten, but in English it was the Tomsk Tavern, so my interpreter told me, kept by a pleasing old fellow whose patronymic — Honkhominiski —I could not well forget, because it is so suggestive of hog and hominy.

I was shown to a room in the hotel, the furniture of which was principally icons and candles. I might call them images, but not in the presence of a Russian, unless I wanted to insult him; an icon, therefore, needs some explanation. The religious Muscovite is technical to a

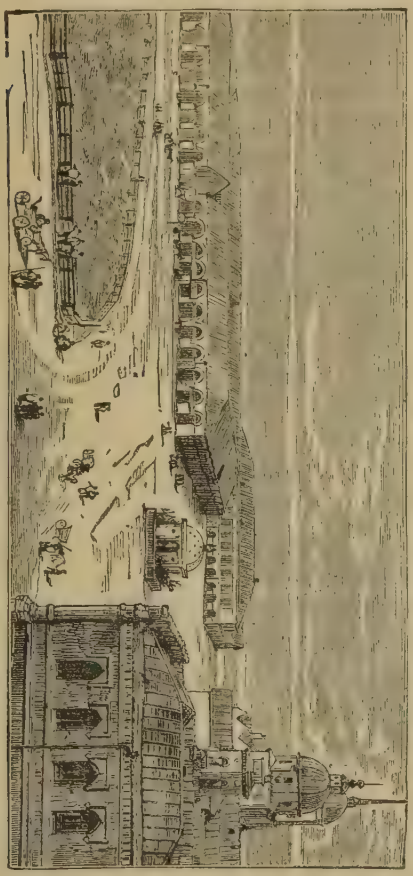
point of punctilliousness; he observes that biblical injunction which forbids the making of idols or images for worship; but his construction of the divine command is, to say the least, about as badly mixed as was the Irishman who attended the accouchment of a double-headed calf. A farmer coming by noticed Pat at work with the calf, which he quickly observed was a freak of nature, and addressed him: "Well, Pat, that is rather a singular *lusus naturæ*, the like of which I never before witnessed."

"Begorrah," responded the puzzled Hibernian, "that's a noble name for sich a brhute; I was afther callin' ov't a badly mixed calf."

In order to avoid conflict with the command, and at the same time secure his image, the Russian icon maker first paints a picture of either Christ, the Madonna, or whatever holy patriarch he desires to represent, and then makes a *bas-relief* investiture, so that the clothing is a relief image, while those portions which represent the face, hands or feet are only painted on a flat back-ground. This hybrid image the Russians call an icon, and they believe with all their devout credulity that it is neither a graven image nor the representation of an image. It is only necessary to add that Russian religion is founded upon faith alone—without works.

Surrounded by so much holiness, I slept with soundness until Peter's cock split its throat crowing, and the sun had started the bees on their third trip to the clover blossoms—metaphorically, of course, as there is no clover in Siberia. Starting out into the city about ten o'clock, the first thing that arrested my attention was what Russians call a *gostinnoi dvor*, a market-place where are sold all the vegetable products of Siberia, and many others raised in Russia. I was very much entertained passing

through the numerous stalls making a hurried inspection of the things on sale, and those who were bartering Around the market there is a large open space in the center of which stands a handsome little chapel with white and gilt sides and a beautiful blue dome representing the starlit canopy of heaven.



THE GOSTINNOI DVOR, OR MARKET-PLACE, AT TOMSK.

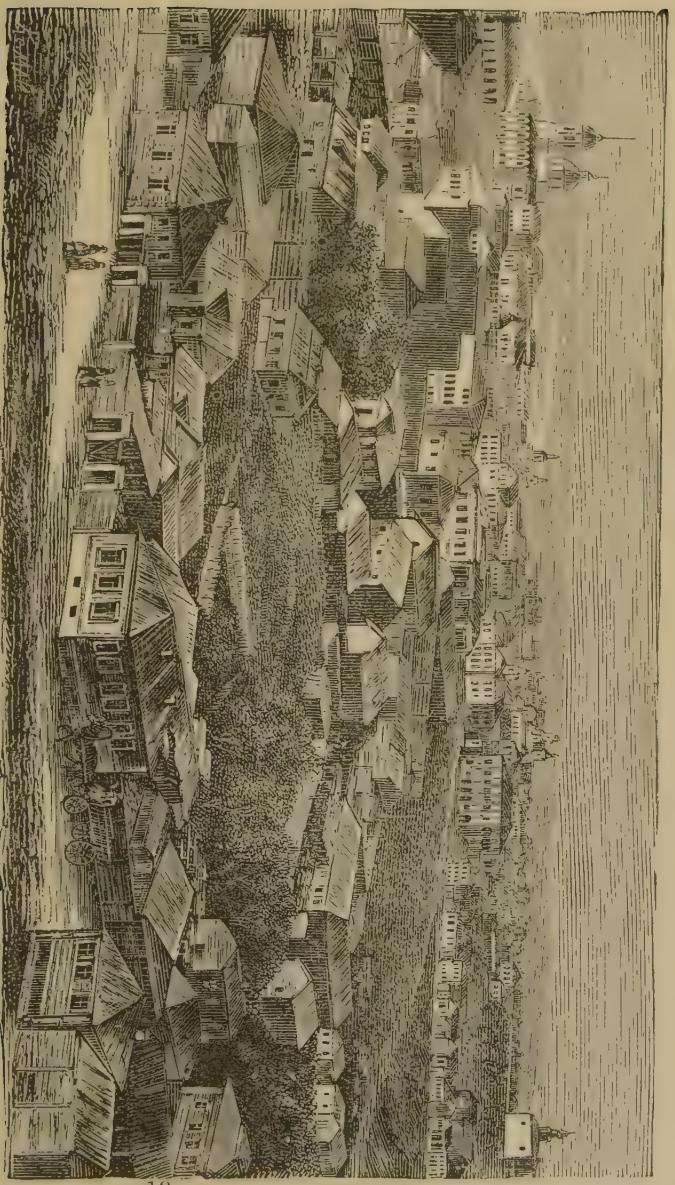
There are two prisons in Tomsk, both of which are low, brick buildings, perpetually damp and foul with miasmatic exhalations, owing to the boggy character of the soil over which they are built. One of these prisons is used as a detention building, in which prisoners on the way east are temporarily confined, from one day to one week, according as occasion may require.

In the other prison, criminals sent into exile for short terms are confined. These perform little labor, and they are kept in such close quarters that inaction affects them seriously. Through the kindness of a local charity a

school has recently been established for the benefit of the prisoners and their children, but comparatively few avail themselves of the benefit which it affords. There is a reason for this which I did not understand at first. The prisoners confined at Tomsk are only those convicted of petty crimes, whose sentence does not exceed four years, and even this does not extend beyond mere confinement; naturally, such convicts are from a class so densely ignorant that intelligence is repugnant; they never have spirit to do more than snatch a pocket-book, assassinate some unsuspecting person, or assault a female.

There are no political convicts at Tomsk, and as it was this class I was more particularly desirous of seeing, my stay in that town was limited to a single day.

We were now at the terminus of water communication eastward, of which fact I was not disposed to grumble, because steamboating in Siberia can only be compared for discomfort, to travelling by tarantass or tumbril; when you are on one, you invariably wish you were on the other; so, having just left a steamer, I was glad to get a tumbril. Schleuter had no difficulty in engaging a vehicle of this character, and being himself familiar with the highway, we concluded to dispense with the services of a *yemstchik* (driver) and go through to Krasnoiarsk, which is distant from Tomsk about three hundred miles, without any auxiliaries. Having completed arrangements, we started from Tomsk in the morning with a determination to reach Krasnoiarsk within two days' travelling. Schleuter was a good driver, and he knew just how much speed to get out of three Siberian ponies abreast. When we reined up at the first station, our horses were in a foam but they still had many long breaths in them; nevertheless we changed them, and with fresh animals our rapid travelling was resumed.



VIEW OF SOUTH SIDE OF TOMSK.

As a pointer to those ambitious of visiting Siberia, let me add one explanatory word here. First, a tumbril is much to be preferred before a tarantass; second, horse-back is preferable to either; third, walking, in any other country, is far less objectionable than travelling in any way through Siberia. It is true, that in a tumbril lying down is possible, but consider the luxury of such a bed; between the two axles are three or more poles to which the bed of the vehicle is fastened; they are just long and inelastic enough to throw you high in the air when the tumbril crosses an obstruction, and let you down again with the force of a catapult. Under such circumstances sleep visits the traveller in horrid dreams; this I know from experience, for the first night out, being exhausted with the mascerating trituration to which I had been subjected for eighteen hours, I fell into a doze which lasted perhaps half an hour, during which time I dreamed of being assaulted by six three-headed giants two miles tall, who pounded me with spiked bludgeons and then chewed me up between steel teeth six feet long. When the giants concluded their feast, my dream changed and I thought a large pack of wolves had surrounded a small tree up which I had sought escape; that they fell to with their teeth and soon gnawed the sapling until it fell, throwing me upon the ground with extreme violence, when immediately my flesh was torn into shoe-strings by a thousand snarling, voracious pests of Siberia's plains. The cold chills even now creep in successive waves over my body as I recall that dream, for it seems that I can still feel the wolves planting their feet on my body while stripping the flesh from my bones. This dream is only a very slight exaggeration of the real miseries suffered by travellers in Siberia.

When Schleuter became too tired for further service I

took his place as driver, and thus we lost no time until the evening following our departure from Tomsk, when, strange enough, we overtook the same convoy of prisoners I had seen leave Tobolsk, on foot, nearly a week before. This I considered a piece of good fortune, as it enabled me to see how exiles in transport were treated, and to discover with what feelings they accepted banishment.

I got on good terms with the chief officer of the convoy by giving him sundry privileges with a little flask which I carried for emergencies, just like the one to which it was now applied. Through my interpreter I talked with him familiarly for some time and then made inquiries respecting his charge; he was not disposed to say much about the prisoners at first, but as the flask lost its contents, he became more loquacious until I had pumped enough out of him to fill a book. Under the spiritual influence which now possessed him, he exhibited that careless indifference of his prisoners' comfort which distinguishes the Russian aristocracy in their treatment of the poor peasantry.

It was plain to be seen that the burdened convicts were suffering from fatigue, although it is said they travel only on alternate days, resting at post-stations and attending church meantime, but of this I have my doubts. It is probably the law, but what is a written law in a country like Siberia? My impression is, if the officers of a convoy desire to recreate themselves—get drunk on the highway—they stop one or more days at a time; but, on the other hand, if they are anxious to make a quick trip in order to serve their own personal ends, then the convicts are compelled to continue their march, regardless of the fatigue they may be suffering. In fact, the officer with whom I was conversing virtually admitted to me as much.

POST-STATION AND CHURCH ON THE HIGHWAY.

There were three ambulances—tumbrils—with the convoy to carry those who could travel no longer, but the officer told me they were used only in extreme cases; said he, "when a man or woman lags behind we sometimes touch them up with a cracker; and if this does not put new life in their legs the *plete*, well wielded, almost invariably does." This admission served to indicate the severe measures sometimes used in compelling exiles to walk when their condition was such that they could scarcely support their exhausted bodies. I am not unconscious of the fact that many would feign sickness in order to secure a ride, but for the stringent measures used by the guards; human nature is not different in Siberia from that we see in other countries, but the enforced travelling of exiles is performed under circumstances peculiar, in that the convicts are punished beyond what their sentence contemplates.

As I rode beside the officer my attention was attracted to one man who staggered along, with his face towards the ground as if trying to lose consciousness in a hypnotism of himself. He was heavily ironed, in fact inhumanly, atrociously shackled, so that every step he took his chains rattled in consonance with the extreme suffering which I could plainly see he was enduring. His wrists were bound together, to which was attached a heavier double-chain that ran down and connected with immense iron manacles on his ankles; the weight of the gyves he had to carry was not less than thirty pounds, and though not at the time able to observe the effects, I was quite certain that an examination would disclose a sight sufficient to excite the sympathy of any human being. I was therefore determined in my efforts to see the poor fellow and learn exactly the condition of his limbs. To accomplish this I had recourse to a little stratagem,

in which Schleuter gave me such assistance as made my plan successful. I knew that the next station was the last before reaching Krasnoiarsk, so directly after refilling my flask I went among the several officers of the guard and gave them each so much as they desired to drink, besides a few pleasant words, such as I thought would place them on good terms with me. I next returned to the chief officer and give him a full flask, after which I began a dissertation on prisoners generally, and on exiles in particular; declaring that as a rule their treatment was altogether too considerate; that they should be dealt with in a manner becoming their crimes; if a man commits murder he should be shown no more mercy than that which he manifested for his victim; I assured him that the *plete* was a good stimulant and was quite certain that the irons on his prisoners were in no wise too heavy; in fact they might be more wholesome if they were a little heavier. A long commentary of this character had the effect I had anticipated, for the officer not only coincided with my views, but offered to prove that he was a disciplinarian after the type I had pictured. "Some of these fellows," said he, "are wretches who ought to be fed to a slow fire; well, I have the satisfaction of knowing that they will remember *me*."

To this I made a complimentary reply, and then begged that he would accord me the privilege of examining one or more of the convicts at the next station—those whom he could recommend as having had something of their deserts while under his charge.

I was very glad at receiving a favorable response, so at a station between Balshe and Krasnoiarsk we stopped an hour, during which time I examined the poor fellow to whom I have referred, and also one woman who was travelling with a large iron collar about her neck, to

which there were chains passing down and binding her wrists. The two were taken into a private room of the station, separately so as not to arouse the suspicion of the other convicts or guards.

A SHACKLED CONVICT ON THE TRANSPORT ROUTE.

The shackles being removed we took off the man's felt boots, when I saw a sight which may God forbid I should ever again witness. There is nothing to which

I might compare his condition except to some of those tortured by the Spanish Inquisition, or to victims of Bulgarian atrocity. The flesh had been bruised by the cruel shackles, and then swelling had caused the irons to slowly lacerate the sensitive parts until the ankles resembled the last stages of leprosy, when the flesh grows black and begins to drop away from the bones. Such a sight I never before saw and hope never to see again, but in addition to the suffering which this dreadful treatment caused him, his wrists were in a condition almost equally bad. His felt boots had, of course, somewhat aggravated the injuries to his ankles, which were now worn almost in two by the shackles; but there was the same rasping pressure on his wrists on which he bore nearly all the weight of his chains in order to relieve his ankles. Such compassion was aroused in me by his sufferings that tears fell fast from my eyes, and in a moment when the officer was not looking I slipped a ten rouble note into the poor fellow's pocket. I was well aware that this sum of money would purchase for him many little comforts and also secure him a place in the ambulance. The look of "God bless you" which he gave was so full of soulfulness and gratitude that in remembering the event since I have wished a thousand times that I had made my gratuity tenfold greater. But in addition to my gift I procured for him transportation in the convoy trumbril by giving the chief officer five roubles.

After examining the man and sending him out of the oom the woman was called in, but though her condition was dreadful and pitiable, it was not to be compared with that of the man's. Her wrists, which had supported but little weight, were badly chafed and had bled until her dress was stained; but the greatest suffering she en-

dured was from her neck, which was so badly bruised that when the iron collar was removed she could not bear the least pressure on the injured parts without exhibiting great pain. By giving the officer another five rouble note he consented to permit the woman to travel into Krasnoiarsk without the shackles.

But I would not have the reader suppose that these two were the only sufferers in that party of prisoners, for there were, perhaps, three-score of men and women no more fortunate; the two I selected to examine were not exceptional cases, but were a fair sample of the results produced by wearing galling irons while travelling 2000 miles on foot.

Beside these miserable convicts trudged nearly one hundred foot-sore women and children who had elected, of their own volition, to accompany their husbands or fathers into exile. Among the women not a few carried little infants strapped on their backs, Indian style, as their arms could never have borne them so far, however precious a child is to its mother. I distributed several roubles among those whose appearance of misery appealed to my sympathy most; but these little gifts served to increase the pity I already felt, for as I would give to one and not to another, the sorrowful looks I saw in the eyes of those whose extended palms received nothing pierced me with compassion.

CHAPTER XV.

We arrived at Krasnoiarsk on the evening of the third day, a little in advance of the convoy of prisoners, and found lodging in a hotel which gave us fair accommodations.

The town has a population of about 8,000, and is situated on one of Siberia's most famous rivers, the Yenisei, which, starting in the Taugnou mountains of Chinese Tartary, flows northward a distance of 2000 miles into the Yenisei Gulf. Krasnoiarsk lies upon several small hills, and is built in an irregular, straggling style. It contains one prison which is used, I understood, for confining local offenders, and others who, while enroute further east, fall ill by the way-side. What is meant by the word "ill," in this connection, may be inferred when the fact is known that out of a total of one hundred and twenty-two prisoners confined in the prison when I visited it, fifty-one were insane. I am not surprised that so many exiles grow mad, for it is only the coarsest and strongest minds that can bear up under the afflictions which a majority of exiles are made to endure.

A CONVALESCENT PRISONER IN IRONS.

In passing through the prison at Krasnoiarsk, I went into one ward that contained an unfortunate fellow who had been so brutally maltreated while on the transport route that his life was despaired of. He was therefore left at the prison, where his treatment being less rigorous he had so far improved as to be able to sit up and move about. But the most remarkable circumstance concerning this prisoner was found in the fact, that when he en-

ered the prison he was in chains much heavier than those I have previously described, *and these had never been removed.* This statement is so startling as to appear incredible, but receiving the admission from those in charge of the prisoner, and with my own eyes beholding the wretched man still clothed with chains, there could be no stronger proof produced to establish any statement. As I saw him he sat on a clumsy chair to which he was made fast, as seen in the engraving. Around his waist was an iron girdle two inches broad and nearly one-half inch thick, to which heavy chains were attached connecting with an iron collar about his neck, and with an immense bar of iron over his feet. This iron bar, which must have weighed not less than twenty-five pounds, was made fast to his ankles by staples in the bar, which grasped the limbs in an unyielding embrace. It was truly a lamentable sight, from which I turned away without investigating the condition of his neck, waist or ankles, for I was certain they would present an appearance not unlike that I have already described as having seen at a post-station.

There are not a few buildings in Krasnoiarsk of excellent pretensions both as to size and architecture. It has one church that cost nearly $500,000, which was built by a rich gold miner who had seen much of the world even on this side the Atlantic, and yet preferred Siberia as a place of residence. His home, however, was such a model of luxury and elegance that his preference was but natural.

I was told that the city was but little more than half as large as it was prior to the fire of 1880, which swept away many of its most important buildings, the ruins of which were still to be seen on the south side of the town, for it must be remembered that they do not build up

burned districts in Siberia, or even in any part of Europe, like they do in America. A pleasing incident of this fact was told to me at St. Petersburg. Some time in the winter of 1881 the Livadia Garden buildings (a summer retreat in the suburbs of St. Petersburg), took fire and were entirely consumed. The buildings consisted of open frame works under which there were seats and tables for wine and tea drinking; also an enclosed building used as a saloon, and an open air theater; the whole was made of light pine timber, such as in America a rushing man generally gives himself one week to have built up from the ground and in full operation. But the Livadia Garden was re-opened *three months* after the fire, the buildings having been replaced, which was regarded as such extraordinarily quick work that the place has since been known as the American Garden. The St. Petersburgers declare that nowhere in the world outside of America was ever such rapid construction of buildings known.

In the afternoon following my arrival in Krasnoiarsk the convoy which I accompanied made ready for crossing the Yenisei and continuing their journey to Irkoutsk, where, upon arrival, convicts are distributed, according to their sentences, to Sakhalein, Yakoutsk, Kara, and other penal stations.

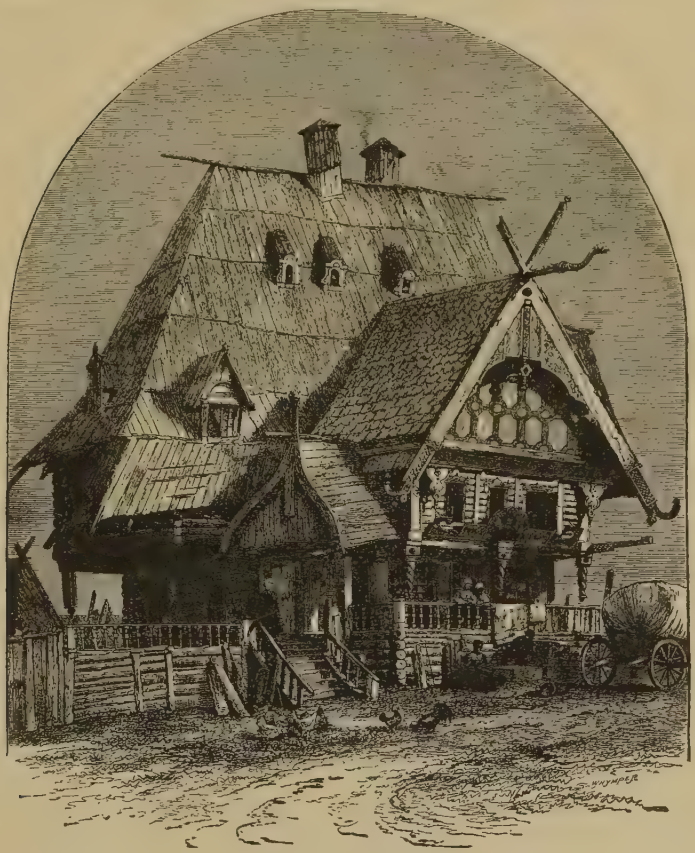
The Yenisei is nearly one mile wide at Krasnoiarsk across which prisoners are taken by what is called a "flying bridge." This bridge, so called, consists of a series of boats anchored in the river, over which passes a long line connecting with the main shores; a barge for carrying the convicts is made fast to this line, which, moving by pullies, draws the boat from one side of the stream to the other. This rather singular arrangement for ferriage is made necessary by reason of the extraordinary current in the Yenisei, which often reaches a rapidity of fifteen miles per hour.

CONVICTS, UNDER MILITARY ESCORT, WAITING TO BE FERRIED ACROSS THE YENISEI.

There was nothing to detain me long at Krasnoiarsk, and being desirous of visiting some mines where I might witness the labor of convicts, after advising with Schleuter, we decided to proceed two hundred miles northward to Yeniseisk. As this would take us off the transport route we had to purchase all provisions needed on the trip, and also a complete travelling outfit, including horses and tumbril. This, however, did not involve so great an outlay as the reader might expect Horses in Siberia are surprisingly cheap, as are cattle. A fatted calf, one year old, will not bring more than $1.50, and a good pony may be had for from $5 to $8. The outfit of three horses, harness and tumbril, cost me only $48, and in the end I found my purchase had been a most profitable one. Milk is nearly everywhere abundant in Siberia, and of this useful article we purchased four gallons; butter is not so plentiful, but yet obtainable at from six to eight cents per pound; we also took with us a *samovar*—tea urn—two pounds of tea, fifteen loaves of white bread, which were baked to our order, and twenty pounds of fresh meat. For our horses we provided five bushels of corn, which is raised in Siberia and sold at twenty-two cents per bushel; grass is generally abundant, but oats are almost unknown. We laid in no other provender for our animals, having already such a load that we could scarcely make room for our bedding. Thus accoutred, away we went towards the great *tundras*, which, beginning a little north of Yeniseisk, stretch away to the arctic shores of Siberia.

Before reaching Krasnoiarsk the country becomes more broken, with a considerable showing of stunted trees, chiefly pine, but going northward from that city the vegetation rapidly grows more profuse, until soon there appears an unbroken forest in which large

game abounds. Of this latter fact I had abundant evidence during the first night we went into camp. There is a public highway between Krasnoiarsk and Yeniseisk along which are occasional inns, but the intervals are so



SIBERIAN ROADSIDE INN.

rare that we concluded to make camp at nine o'clock rather than push on ten miles further, where we might have secured lodgings not nearly so good as our tumbril afforded. Directly after lighting our camp-fire, which

was made within a few yards of the road-side, beside a large log, Schleuter turned to me suddenly, with the remark: "What was that?"

I had heard no unusual noise, but must confess that his enquiry immediately put me in a condition to see or hear anything dreadful upon the least symptom of a cause. I had with me no arms except a Smith and Wesson forty-four calibre revolver, and this was quickly drawn in anticipation of approaching deadly peril. The night was cloudless, so that objects not obscured by the dense growth could be readily defined at a distance of thirty or forty yards. We therefore looked with eyes and ears, but could discover nothing, though our horses manifested signs of uneasiness. After several minutes of suspense, even Schleuter came to the conclusion that he had given a false alarm, but I was far from being satisfied, having received a nervous shock from the suddenness of his exciting enquiry which I could not rally from.

Under no circumstances is it an act of decorum or an evidence of great courage for a gentleman to parade his cool bravery before a company when every element of danger is absent; particularly inappropriate would it be for me to strike a self-eulogistic attitude here where the opposite side has no opportunity of replying. But at the sacrifice of modesty I must say that on my native heath I have hunted such game as the country afforded without at any time—save once—having either my conscience or fears excited; this placid condition is due, however, to the fact that I always killed what I was hunting, and because I never got on the wrong side of the fence. But the conditions were now very materially altered, for what I knew concerning Siberian game had been acquired by reading adventures which described the animals as great hunters themselves and of the carnivorous

species. What I had forgotten of the ferocious wolves, bears, boars, etc., of which I had read, came back to me now in vivid panorama, so that an admission of my restlessness is drawing it exceedingly mild.

I sat up rather late, smoking my pipe, but the drowsy god at length alighted on my eye-lids and I turned in with Schleuter, who had for an hour before been executing a nasal refrain in the tumbril. One, perhaps two hours had passed; the fire was almost extinguished, and dozing, I had lost my fear in a pleasant dream of home. The dream was concluded abruptly by my being awakened with a returning sense of danger; the horses were snorting and tugging violently to loose themselves. I jumped up, and looking over toward the smouldering embers saw a bear, which, in my dreadfully excited state, appeared as large as a mammoth. I forgot to awaken Schleuter, who obstinately slept without one disturbing reflection, but reaching for my pistol I fired across and very near Schleuter's head just as the bear reared up on his hind legs to drain our *samovar*, which had been left on the log. If I had known a little pistol shot could have created so much of a row I would have considered several minutes before firing. Schleuter bounded up as though a dynamite mine had exploded under him, and he lit out of the tumbril like one possessed of the devil. So dreadfully confounded was I by his actions that for a moment I forgot all about the bear, notwithstanding that it was howling with rage and advancing on Schleuter. My aim had not been bad, for the bear's foreleg was broken by the shot, but this served to rouse all the fight in bruin's nature. Schleuter, half awake, could not see the bear nor be made to understand his dangerous position, until another shot from my pistol, placed almost against the animal's ear, put a *coup de grace* on our adventure.

THE CAUCACUS KOSLANTAN DVATLAN, SHEKAN, SUANETIA

There was no more sleep for either of us that night, so rebuilding our fire we fell to and skinned the dead bear, keeping the hide as a trophy and taking the carcass along with us to Yeniseisk. I learned from natives that what I considered a great adventure, in killing a bear, was an event so commonplace that it could scarcely be esteemed an adventure. In fact the country I was now in abounded with such game, the hunting of which was followed not only for the purpose of securing the game but for ridding the country of pests which ravaged herds of young cattle and horses. A favorite way of hunting the bear is with a whip, fire-arms and ammunition not always being obtainable in Siberia. To be successful in this kind of hunting two men must hunt together on horses; each provides himself with a whip, made of plaited rawhide, about twelve or fifteen feet long, to the end of which is tied a leaden ball, which gives impetus to the lash, and also serves the more useful purpose of tying the lash when whipped around the animal's neck. A bear being found the two hunters, whose horses are generally trained for the use, ride on each side of the animal, striking it with the whip until it is almost exhausted; they then, by a movement which requires no little skill, throw their whips around the bear's neck in such a manner that the lash ties itself; now being drawn from opposite directions the animal is powerless and is often taken into the village in this way, where it is disposed of.

CHAPTER XVI.

We reached Yeniseisk without further adventure, and found it a city of much greater size and importance than I had supposed. It contains a population of nearly 20,000 souls, and is beautifully situated on the south side of

the Yenisei River. It is a great center for disposing of furs obtained by the hunters of northern Siberia, who are generally Samoyeds, Tunguses and Ostjaks, whose numbers between the Obi and Yenisei rivers are estimated to be about 25,000. They subsist almost entirely by hunting and fishing, in which, with the use of the most primitive hooks and bows, they are remarkably successful; but being nomadic and improvident, like our American Indians, they accumulate no more than will supply their present necessities.

The principal animals found in the province of Yeniseisk are the bear, wolf, reindeer, white fox, ermine, elk and sable.

In capturing the bear the Samoyeds adopt an original plan, one which I do not remember being practiced by any other tribe. Bears are more or less like the deer in their habit of visiting a special locality by a particular route; the Samoyed therefore takes advantage of this habit by fixing his trap in bruin's way: A wooden platform is erected around a tree at such height from the ground that to reach the center of it a bear must stand upon his hind legs. The platform is filled with very sharp iron spikes running up two inches above the surface, while above them and made fast to the tree is placed a piece of meat. In rearing up to secure this meat the bear transfixes his fore-feet on the sharp spikes, and is unable to release himself.

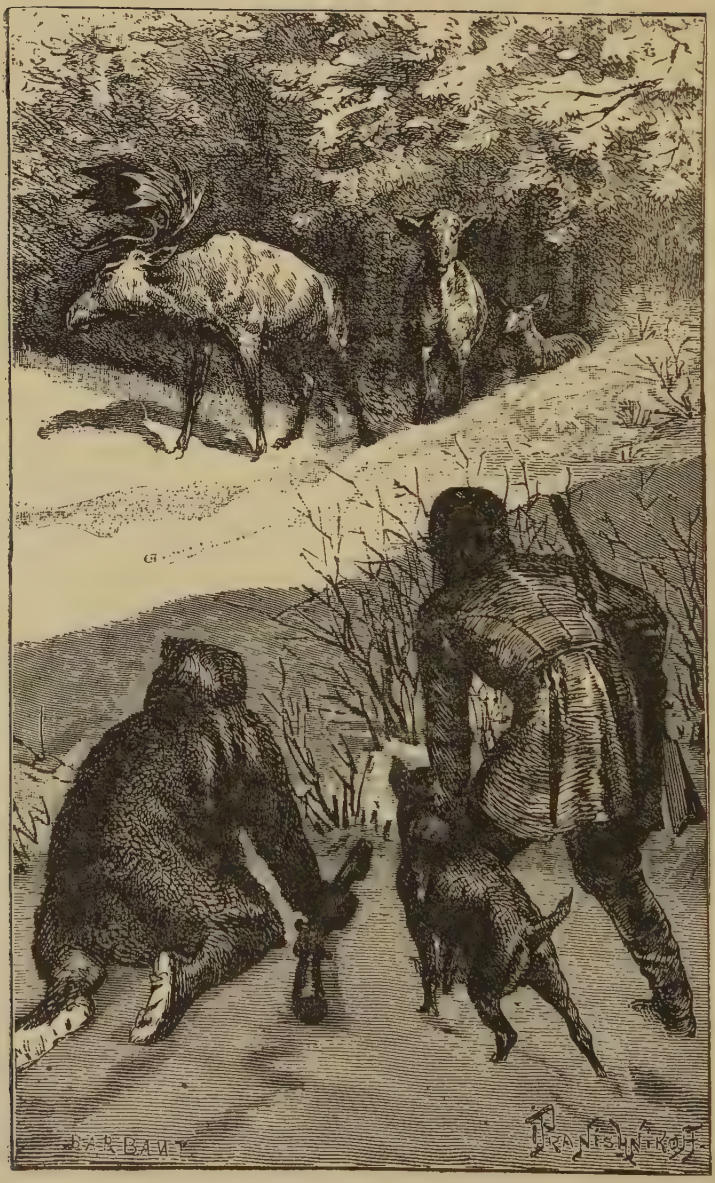
Snow was already falling about Yeniseisk during my visit to the place in September, and I saw a large party of Tunguses making ready for a trip to the *tundras*, which begin about thirty miles north of Yeniseisk; the fishing season was now practically over, while the hunting was just beginning. I did not visit the *tundras*, because my time was too limited, but from several persons,

residents of Yeniseisk, who were thoroughly familiar with Northern Siberia, I obtained a description which was no doubt more accurate than I could have secured by paying a short visit to that intensely dreary section.

There is no place on earth that can compare with the *tundras* for desolation and extreme cold, unless we choose to bring the arctic regions into the contrast. Our great western plains are only miniature tracts of level country, and their product of thin grass is as a bounteous dispensation of nature when compared with the almost measureless, frozen-hearted, worse than barren deserts of northern Siberia. This great verdureless plain extends from the center of northern Russia, six thousand miles across Siberia, until it impinges on the fretful shores of the Kamtchatkan sea and Behring's Strait. For ten months in the year this immense stretch of hunger-laden shore is covered with snow; not so much as a dry twig, frosted leaf, or drifting scallops about some fallen tree, is there to relieve the one dead, shimmering, shivering ocean waste of trackless snow; nothing, like a bubble in mid-ocean, unless may be seen on the expansive plain some lonely hunters braving arctic perils in quest of the reindeer.

An American who spent three years in Siberia gives the following graphic description of life on the tundras:

"A winter journey over the great northern tundras is inexpressibly lonely and monotonous. Day after day the eye rests upon the same illimitable expanse of storm-drifted snow, and night after night the traveller camps in an utter solitude, over which seems to brood the mournful silence of universal death. I do not know how to describe in words the impression of sadness, loneliness and isolation from all human interests, which these great barren plains make upon the imagination.



HUNTING REINDEER ON THE TUNDRAS. 314

The world which you have left, with all its cares, strife and busy activity, fades away into the unreal imagery of a dream; and you seem removed to an infinite distance from all the interests and occupations of your previous life. You cannot realize that you are still in the same busy, active, money-getting world in which you remember once to have lived. The cold, still atmosphere, the red, gloomy twilight of the low-hanging sun, and the great white ghastly ocean of snow around you, are all full of cheerless, mournful suggestions, and have a strange unearthliness which you cannot reconcile or connect with any part of your previous life.

"The pleasantest feature of winter travel in Siberia is camping-out at night. All day long you suffer from cold, hunger and fatigue, you lose your way in blinding snow-storms, or become exhausted by the constant struggle to keep warm in a temperature of 40° or 50° below zero; but the anticipation of the bright evening camp-fire sustains your flagging spirits, and enables you to hold out until night. We usually camped as soon as we could find wood for a fire after it grew dark. Three sledges were drawn up together so as to make a little enclosure about ten feet square; the snow was all shovelled out of the interior and banked up around the sides like a snow fort; and a fire was built at the open end. The little snow cellar was then strewn to a depth of three or four inches with twigs of trailing pine; shaggy bearskins were spread down to make a warm, soft carpet; and our fur sleeping-bags and swans-down pillows arranged for the night. In the middle of the enclosed space stood a low table improvised out of a candle box, on which one of our native drivers soon placed two cups of steaming tea, a few pieces of frozen rye bread and some dried fish. Then stretching ourselves out in luxurious style upon our

bearskin carpet, with our feet to the fire and our backs against pillows, we smoked, drank tea, and told stories in perfect comfort. After supper the natives piled dry branches of trailing pine upon the fire until it sent up a column of flame ten feet in height, and then, squatted in their favorite position around the blaze, they would sing for hours the wild, melancholy songs of the Kamchadals, or tell never-ending stories of hardship and adventure on the coast of the Icy Sea. At last, the great constellation of Orion marked bed-time. Our stockings were taken off and dried by the fire, the dogs were fed their daily allowance of dried fish each, and putting on our heaviest fur coats, we crawled feet first into our wolfskin bags, pulled them up over our heads, and slept.

"A camp, in the middle of a dark, clear winter's night, presents a strange, wild appearance. Imagine, if you can, that you have waked up at some unknown hour after midnight, and have thrust your head out of your frosty fur bag, to see by the stars what time it is. The fire has died away to a few glowing embers. There is just light enough to distinguish the dark, crouching forms of the natives, some sitting upon their heels, with their backs against sledges, some squatting in a row by the fire, and all asleep. Away beyond the limits of the camp stretches the desolate steppe in a series of long snowy waves, which blend gradually into a great white frozen ocean, and are lost in the distance and darkness of night. High overhead, in a sky which is almost black, sparkle the bright constellations of Orion and the Pleiades, the celestial clocks which mark the long, weary hours between sunset and sunrise. The blue, mysterious streamers of the aurora tremble in the north, now shooting up in clear, bright lines to the zenith, and then waving back and forth in great majestic curves over the silent camp,

as if warning back the adventurous traveller from the unknown regions around the pole. Silence is as profound as death. Nothing but the pulsating of the blood in your ears and the heavy breathing of your sleeping men, breaks the universal lull.

"Suddenly there rises upon the still night air a long, faint, wailing cry, like that of a human being in the last extremity of suffering. Gradually it swells and deepens, until it seems to fill the whole atmosphere with its volume of mournful sound, dying away at last into a low, despairing moan. It is the signal howl of a Siberian dog. In a moment it is taken up by another upon a higher key; two or three more join in, then a dozen, then twenty, fifty, eighty, until the whole pack of one hundred dogs howl an infernal chorus together, making the air fairly tremble with sound, as if from the heavy bass of a great organ.

"For fully a minute heaven and earth seem to be full of yelling, howling fiends. Then, one by one they begin to drop off, the unearthly tumult grows fainter and fainter, until at last, it ends as it began, in one long and inexpressibly melancholy wail, and the camp becomes silent again as death. One or two of your men move restlessly in their sleep, as if the mournful howls blended unpleasantly with their dreams, but no one wakes, and a death-like silence again pervades heaven and earth.

"Suddenly the aurora shines out with increased brilliancy, and its waving swords sweep back and forth across the dark, starry sky, and light up the snowy steppe with transitory flashes of colored radiance, as if the gates of heaven were opening and closing upon the dazzling brightness of the celestial city. Presently it fades away again to a faint, diffused glow in the north, and one pale green streamer, slender and bright as the spear of Ithu-

riel, pushes slowly up toward the zenith until it touches with its translucent point the jewelled belt of Orion. Then it, too, fades and vanishes, and nothing but a bank of pale white mist on the northern horizon shows the location of the celestial armory whence the Arctic spirits draw the gleaming swords and lances which they brandish nightly over the lonely Siberian steppes.

"With the earliest streak of dawn the camp begins to show signs of animation. The dogs get out of the deep holes which their warm bodies have melted in the snow; the natives push their heads out of the neck-holes of their fur coats, and whip off the mass of frost which has accumulated around the aperture; a fire is built, tea boiled, and you crawl out of your fur bag to breakfast. Fifteen or twenty minutes are spent in drinking tea and eating dried fish. The sledges are then packed, the runners wet down to cover them with a coating of ice, and before the aurora fades away in the increasing light of sunrise, you are riding again at a brisk trot across the steppe. In this monotonous routine of riding, camping and sleeping, day after day, and week after week pass slowly and wearily away."

During the summer season of two months, there develops upon the tundras a coarse vegetation which very much resembles moss, but so thick and strong is it that nothing, not even a reindeer, can travel through it. But in the winter season this moss-grass becomes food for these animals, from which they remove the snow by digging with their sharp feet.

The Tungueses whom I saw preparing for the hunt had a large number of dogs which they took with them to draw their sledges, as only dogs or reindeers can be used for that purpose; they also had a number of sledges on which were thrown with other luggage several pairs of

snow-shoes. In answer to my questions, through an interpreter, one of the hunters told me his party was going in quest of sable, the skins of which sold in Yeniseisk as high as $40. In hunting these little animals the Tunguese relies chiefly on good luck, rather than any special skill. Tracks of the sable being found they are followed until the animal is either caught, when it is despatched with a stick, or run into a hole. As digging it out would be next to impossible, and as the animal frequently lies abed for three or four days at a time, the Tunguese goes into camp to wait its appearance. Before lying by, as it were, however, the hunter fixes a number of snares around the hole, to which he generally attaches little bells. He then takes up a position near the hole and waits; when the sable comes out and is caught the tinkling bells alarm the hunter, who rushes and secures his prize before it can gnaw the threads in two which hold its feet.

White foxes are caught in traps set on the highest knolls that can be found, for it is well known that this wary animal has a habit of repairing each night to some hill to make his observations. Black foxes are also occasionally caught in Siberia, but they are exceedingly rare. While attending the Moscow exposition I was shown a dressed black-fox skin for which the furrier asked $1,000, and this he assured me was not an unusual price.

Elk hunting, or stalking, as it is called, is carried on by men on snow-shoes, which any one, not acquainted with the numbers of these animals that roam the tundras, would suppose very hard and unremunerative labor: but so numerous are elks, and also reindeer, in that barren country, that they may be found in large herds without expending much time or labor. There are annually brought down to Yeniseisk for sale from 10,000 to 20,000 elk skins.

Elks are generally shot, but reindeer hunting involves great skill and a thorough knowledge of the animal's habits, for they are taken alive and domesticated for draught purposes. The more common way of catching them is by building enclosures into which they are driven and then secured by lassoing. As it would be impossible to find material on the tundras out of which an enclosure could be made, hunters provide themselves with stakes and ropes which are carried on sledges to the places desired. A herd of reindeer being located the enclosure is hastily set up, after which a party of hunters surround and drive them to the mouth, which is large but gradually contracts until a small passage-way leads into a circular enclosure. Their horns are so large and many-pronged, that lassoing them may be easily done by even a novice.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE first mine I had the privilege of visiting, worked by convict labor, was at Yeniseisk, and to this part of the object of my visit I now addressed myself. Siberia is rich in mineral, nor is the country limited in quantity or quality to the more common metals, for it also has large quantities of gold, silver, iron, malachite, copper, zinc, etc. Americans are wont to look upon our own territories as the richest in precious metals of any country in the world, but this a mistaken idea. Siberia is unquestionably richer in gold and silver than California, Colorado, Nevada, or New Mexico; she already produces more gold than any other country, notwithstanding the obsta-

cles which hedge her about, and every year the product largely increases.

SIBERIAN HUNTER.

The principal gold mines in Siberia are those of Yenisei'sk, Irkoutsk, Kanst, Kara, Nijni Udinsk and several

along the Lena River, which latter I am told are much richer than any others yet opened in Siberia. There is also a very large gold mine on the river Vitim, in the trans-Baikal district, from which there is now taken nearly $3,000,000 annually.

The Yeniseisk gold mine is several miles distant from the town and to reach it we had therefore to have recourse to our tumbril. The road led through a dreadfully rough country and crossed several streams that were so deep the bed of our vehicle was wet. Reaching the mine I was somewhat surprised to find it a placer digging, for my idea was that here I should find convicts at work far under the earth upon whom I might observe the effects of perpetual banishment from sunshine. While I did not, therefore, go under ground in quest of information of an extremely unpleasant character, I did witness many sights of interest connected with Siberian mining and the operation of convict labor.

A very large space of ground was dug over, but there was employed altogether not more than 400 laborers, about one-fourth of whom were free-men, that is, convicts who had served their sentences but remained in the country because they could never collect enough money to take them to Russia again, or for some other reasons. These mines, like a majority of others in Siberia, are worked by private corporations or capitalists, who hire convict laborers from the Government. This system has been in operation for many years, owing to the fact that, prior thereto, dishonest officials robbed the Government of the mineral yield so that the mines were worked at a continual loss.

The mining at Yeniseisk is performed in a primitive way. A large cylinder with many perforations takes the place of the washing pan used in the early days of Cali-

HOUSES MADE OF WOOD, CANVAS AND FELT.

fornia. Into this cylinder, which is made to revolve, the gold-bearing earth and stones are placed, over which a stream of water runs. The yield was not large, but an officer was there to inspect every cylinder and make report of its contents, which report was transmitted to the Government. The gold bullion, dust and quartz is taken by team to Irkoutsk, where there are reducing works. These teams are sent out from Yeniseisk about four times each year and are always accompanied by a cossack guard to protect the treasure from falling into the hands of highway plunderers.

I witnessed no special hardships upon the convict laborers at these mines, nothing more than may be seen on a visit to almost any penitentiary in the United States. I saw a few men chained to wheelbarrows, and others having chains on their wrists and ankles, but it did not appear that they suffered greatly. But I was afterward informed that the mines near Yeniseisk were controlled by a very humane and charitable capitalist whose treatment of those in his employ was exceptionally considerate.

Upon our return from the mines we came upon a forlorn, exceedingly wretched appearing man who, in response to Schleuter's inquiries, stated that he was an exile, having a habitation in the mountainous region thereabouts. There was something about the man which I could not resist, perhaps it was the melting and intelligent expression of his eyes, or the sorrowful, pitiable look that he gave us, or a thankful recognition for our condescension in addressing him so kindly. I therefore inquired the distance to his lodgings, and finding it comparatively near immediately decided to pay him a visit. After a drive of perhaps half an hour we descended a mountain beyond the base of which there was a long, level stretch of treeless plain covered with snow. In this

cheerless solitude we soon found the exile's abode, which I was astonished to see was an exact counterpart of the mud "dug-outs" still to be found scattered all over our western territories.

I was glad to find that the poor exile who had excited in me so much interest and compassion was not all alone in this dreadfully dreary spot, and that he had a companion whose lot was no more fortunate than his own; besides his fellow exile there was a faithful dog, companion to them both, whose vigils never waned, guarding against intrusions of wild animals and none the less suspicious of strange people like ourselves.

The abode of our unhappy exile consisted of a slight excavation over which was a boarded double room covered on the top with branches of trees; the whole was banked with earth, two feet thick, so that a fairly comfortable house was had, warm in winter and cool in summer. A door on the south side led, by one step down, into the one spacious room, which was warmed by a fire of fir-wood burning in an improvised stove of too hybrid a character to admit of description. The floor of the room was made of loose boards uneven in length and thickness, but joined together with much care to exclude dampness. A bed was made in one corner by driving stakes into the ground which protruded about two feet and to which lateral and cross-wise strips were nailed to receive the bedding of wolf and bear skins. An *icon* of the Madonna hung on the wall, before which a little tallow candle, made of wolf's lard (so he told me), was kept burning; three shelves, two stools and a box composed all the funiture in the room. His cooking utensils were meager, but there was a *samovar* steaming on the stove, which to every Russian is next in importance to his *icon*.

We were welcomed to these primeval appearing quar-

ters with a genuine hospitality. After tea had been drunk I begged of the exile to tell me the circumstances under which he was banished, and something of the life he had led in Siberia. First being assured that I was an American in quest of information concerning convict life in Siberia, he recited his story to me through my interpreter, which briefly repeated is substantially as follows:

"My home was, until 1873, near the village of Miechow, which is in the southern part of Poland, nearly two hundred versts from Warsaw. I belonged to a communal estate, which was originally the property of our nobleman Kratznich, but after the order of liberation I remained attached to the estate, and tried to draw from the soil sustenance for my family, consisting of a wife and two children. I was fairly prosperous, though there is little certainty in the crops of my district, one year being abundant, and perhaps for one or two seasons following a complete failure. However, I had no reason for complaint, since many of my neighbors pronounced me the most fortunate peasant among them.

"My misfortune began in the spring of 1873, when there came to my cottage home a brother to my wife, who had fled from the authorities; he was charged with having given aid to the Nihilists and also with being a member of the Terrorist party. Well, I gave him shelter over night, and the next morning three gendarmes, who had been pursuing him for several days, found and arrested him in my house; I felt certain of his innocence, for he swore to myself and wife, before the Little Mother, that the accusation was false. I tried to prevail on the gendarmes to release him, but my pleadings, alas! only served to endanger my own liberty; I was accused by the officers of aiding my brother to escape, and

despite the lamentations and prayers of my wife and children they tore me away from home, which I have never since beheld."

At this point in his narrative, the poor fellow broke into tears, and burying his face in his hands, cried as if his heart were breaking. We tried hard to console him, so after venting his grief for several minutes he proceeded:

ARREST OF THE POLE AND HIS BROTHER.

"I was carried to Warsaw and thrown into prison where I remained nearly one week, at the expiration of which time, in company with ten others, I was taken to Moscow without having any trial whatsoever. From Moscow I was banished to the mines at Nijni Udinsk, which are on the transport route between Krasnoiarsk and Irkoutsk. Would to God I could forget the sufferings which I endured and witnessed among my fellow convicts while on that dreadful journey.

"When I left Moscow and had learned my sentence my grief was so intense that it seemed I could not possibly survive; day and night I could see my wife and children

standing beside our little log cottage casting their streaming eyes after me as the gendarmes rushed me away with them. This great grief, in a measure, made me unconscious of the cruelties to which I was subjected. It was in the summer time when we made the journey and the weather was so hot as to blister every part of our persons exposed to the sun. I was heavily ironed, like the most despicable malefactor, though I was as innocent of doing any wrong to the government, either in act or sympathy, as a babe on its mother's breast. The irons I wore cut my wrists and ankles so dreadfully that I became almost exhausted from the loss of blood, early on the journey.

"The officers gave me some felt to bind my wounds, but this only aggravated my sufferings, as they no doubt knew it would. The dust and heat caused a rapid swelling of the afflicted parts, which turned black, and had I not stopped at a way-station on the route they would certainly have mortified.

"I cannot tell you of all the acts of inhumanity practiced towards us while on our way to Udinsk; my condition was somewhat relieved through a judicious use of the few roubles I chanced to have with me at the time of my arrest, but the other prisoners who had no means whatever were literally goaded to death on the transport highway.

"I had heard much of the hardships endured by convicts in the mines, but so great were my sufferings on the route that I was ready to hail the mines with joyful satisfaction, so when at last we came in sight of Udinsk those of my party who were consigned to labor in the gold mines there looked on its spires with many manifestations of pleasure.

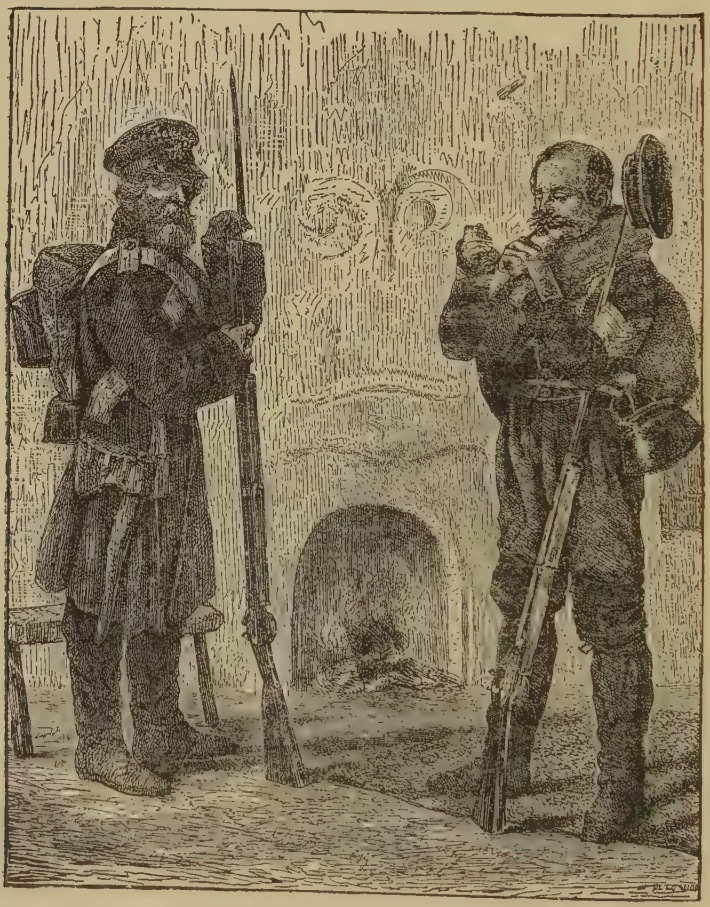
"A very great majority of the prisoners were ready for the hospital rather than the mines, but several poor

fellows who had become the butt of official brutality were hustled into the mines with feet and hands almost putrifying from injuries produced by their heavy manacles. I was more fortunate, however, thanks to my roubles, and for two weeks I had a good bed in the hospital, which was looked after by a local charity. When my recovery was complete I was ordered into the mines, fully three hundred feet under ground, and assigned to labor with another convict; we were required to trundle a large barrow, I at the handles and he to draw by means of rope and breast-yoke attached to the axle of the barrow.

"Before my money was exhausted I did not have any extreme hardships in the mine, but when my last copeck was gone then began sufferings which I dread to recall. Heavy chains were put on me again, about my neck, waist and ankles, while I was compelled to labor at least eighteen hours every day; nor was the labor of an ordinary kind, but required such exertions that I have seen many men faint and fall under it. In numerous instances when exhausted nature could do no more, a manifestation of fatigue would cause the sufferer to be unmercifully punished; my shoulders have been bared to the knout on many occasions for imaginary derelictions, and twice I was tied up by the thumbs because I fell on my barrow from exhaustion. The more common modes of punishment practiced at Nijni Udinsk are by the knout, plete, scorpion and suspension by the thumbs. I was never subjected to the scorpion, but have seen it applied not a few times. This instrument for flagellation is made like the knout, except that in place of the knots on the thongs there are small hooks which, with the force of each blow, are driven into the flesh and on being jerked out draw portions of flesh with them. It is a dreadful sight to witness a flogging with this most terrible of

scourges, about one-fourth of those thus punished dying from its effects.

"Our guards were generally of the most cruel charac-



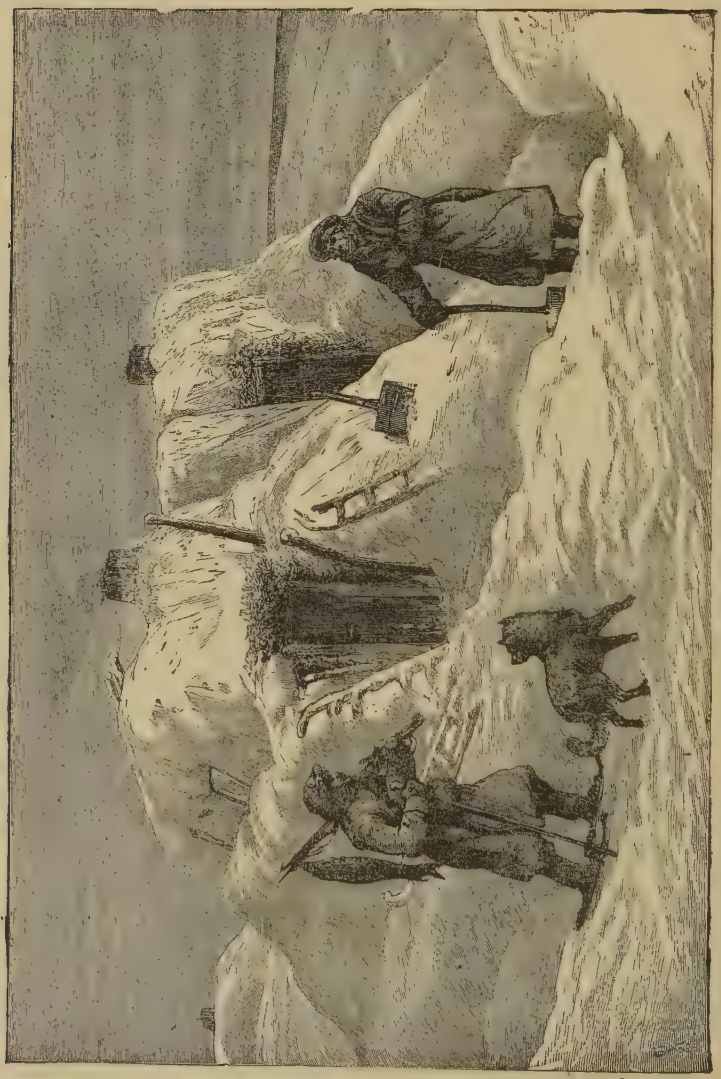
RUSSIAN VETERAN GUARDS.

ter, being selected from the veteran corps, and no longer fit for active duty in the field. Long service and intemperance had demoralized them until there was but

little of humanity left within their breasts. Money would buy their favor, but when this was gone they were more brutal than ever, venting their hatred upon the helpless victim by every sort of imaginable cruelty

"On rare occasions the heads of convicts, who have incurred the hatred of their brutal guards, are bound with strips of rawhide which are drawn so tightly that the eyes of the sufferer burst out, the face turns purple and streams of perspiration pour from every part of the body. This punishment is also generally fatal, but I am glad to say it is not often inflicted. But there is a punishment which is more terrible than either of the others mentioned, because it is protracted sometimes through years. That which I refer to is the confinement of prisoners in damp portions of the mines from whence they are never allowed to depart until death releases them. I have seen men, and women too, who were serving life sentences at hard labor in the mines, loaded with chains and kept at work in pools of water which were both workshops and bed to them for years. It astonishing how long some persons will survive such horrible treatment, they grow thinner and thinner each day until their bodies become almost transparent; thin cheeks and eyes can be seen in dark recesses of the face, the hair falls out, the voice becomes almost inaudible, the bones appear sharply defined under a thin skin and at last they fall to rise no more forever. Amid the flickering lights which so imperfectly illumine the mines these poor wretches appear like gnomes, or spectres of famine.

"I endured these dreadful sights and punishments for eight years, which was the full term of my hard labor sentence. But my misfortunes did not terminate with this sentence, for I am yet doomed to nine more years of exile life in the district which I now inhabit. I do not believe it is a common thing to divide



THE EXILE'S ABODE.

a sentence into periods of hard labor and simple exile, but this has been my lot, and I must endure it. An equally hard portion of my misfortune is the impossibility of communicating with my family, not a single word from whom has been received since the day I was so causelessly taken away from them, nine years ago. Neither my wife nor I can write, nor could any of our neighbors, so that I have found no means of exchanging messages, and am therefore in ignorance of their condition; they may be dead; or my wife, hopeless of my return again, may now be wedded to another; but, if there have been no changes yet, what shall I expect in the next nine years? My heart is buried under afflictions which have passed, and forebodings of evils which must come to me.

"I live here in this little house, dividing it with my equally unfortunate neighbor, and we subsist on what we can make by hunting and fishing. My present condition I would not deplore, but for remembrances of my home in Poland, which, alas! is my home no more."

I was so interested in the exile's story as to be quite unconscious of the approach of darkness, or that I had spent nearly three hours in the snow-covered cabin. But I did not forget to place ten roubles in the poor fellow's hand, and to promise him that I should visit Warsaw before returning to America, and make an effort to communicate whatever message he might wish to send his wife. He thanked me with tears in his eyes, and said: "Tell her that my greatest hope is to see her again, and that the hardest part of my sentence having already been served I shall not cease my prayers for the preservation of our lives that we may meet again and be happy in the little cottage where we were parted so long ago."

That every statement made to me by the confiding exile was true has never excited in me the least doubt, while I

have repeated them (though in my own language) without any exaggeration. My own observations, besides the corroborating stories I heard from others who had voluntarily and involuntarily visited the mines, quite convince me that it would be next to impossible to exaggerate the brutal treatment practiced by guards in Siberia towards their miserable prisoners.

CHAPTER XVIII.

But for the snow on the ground it would have been quite dark when we left the exile's abode to drive back to Yeniseisk. The way was not marked by any semblance of a road, but I anticipated no difficulty in making the return trip safely and speedily. Our horses had been chilled by so long standing in the raw atmosphere, and when we started them they broke away in a run which threatened destruction to our tumbril and injury to ourselves. We got them checked finally, however, and were bowling along in a hilarious spirit until, reaching the apex of a hill, I looked out over the glinting landscape, and was upon the point of making some observation on the beautiful scene, when I descried three black objects nearly two hundred yards distant, which I thought were dogs. But Schleuter was too old a traveller in Siberia to be deceived, and immediately upon seeing them he exclaimed: "Wolves! Get your pistol ready, for we may be in for it to-night."

I must confess that his remark excited some fear in me, for with it the stories I had read of travellers being chased and eaten by these voracious beasts, came back to me with chromatic exaggeration. This partially sub-

sided when I saw the wolves making off from us, and to faciliate their retreat I fired two shots at them, but without effect. However, we had not proceeded more

FIGHT WITH WOLVES.

than two miles further when I saw standing in the way we were going two more wolves, which were so bold that I

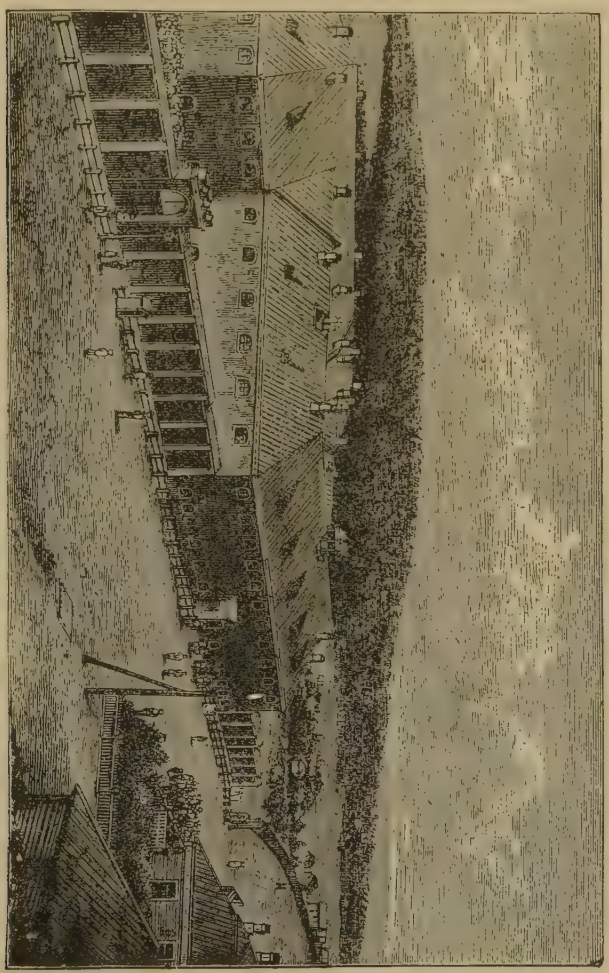
shot one of them not more than twenty feet from our vehicle, while the other trotted off slowly, notwithstanding the shots I fired at it. We had twelve miles to go before arriving at Yenisiesk, and I saw on the route, altogether, not less than fifty wolves, all of the large, ferocious species which does not hesitate to attack travellers, when slightly pressed by hunger.

Arriving at the city about eleven o'clock, we related our experience with the wolves, when the landlord told us that a courier had just come in who had been set upon, by a pack, nearly twenty miles south of Yeniseisk, on his route from Irkoutsk, and that to save himself he had ridden his horse almost to death.

Any mention of wolves before a crowd in a Siberian inn is sure to call forth from one or more persons, who may be present, stories of personal experience with the dreadful creatures, in which hair-breadth escapes figure very prominently, but as wolves are more plentiful in Siberia than squirrels are in our western States, such relations are made more out of vaunting ambition than with an expectation of interesting those who listen to them. But for me stories of wolf and bear hunting are always entertaining, and I was therefore very much delighted to hear second-hand — through my interpreter — the following, told by an Ispravnik—Governor—from the Tomsk Government. It chanced that this distinguished functionary had arrived at Yeniseisk on the day I visited the mines, and was a guest of the inn at which I was stopping. He had four servants with him, all exiles, and otherwise manifested the dignity of his magisterial office, so that when he spoke all gave him a respectful hearing. To preserve the identity of the relator I will give the story in the first person:

"It has now been just two years since business, con-

nected with the Government, called me to Irkoutsk, and from thence to the Alexandreffsky Central prison, which is nearly one hundred versts north of the city. The



THE ALEXANDREFFSKY CENTRAL PRISON.

winter, you remember, set in unusually early in 1880, and when I started from Tomsk there was so much snow

on the ground that a *troika* could be used. I met with no adventure on the trip to Irkoutsk, where my business was speedily transacted. The Governor at Irkoutsk placed his own private team at my disposal for the trip to Alexandreffsky, and with a good driver I started out early in the morning, calculating to reach my destination before night set in, as I never fancied driving on a lonely highway even in the moonlight.

"It has been my rule, whenever travelling through any of the Siberian Governments, to carry with me a trusty rifle, which I purchased on my last visit to St. Petersburg, because it has more than once served me well in the midst of imminent danger, but unfortunately, on the occasion which I am now about to relate, I failed to provide myself with the usual complement of cartridges, taking less than twenty, when I generally carry not less than fifty.

"We started out from Irkoutsk in high glee, taking with us a good quantity of *quass* and *vodka*, which serves one so well, you know, on a journey of the character I was about to take. Nothing whatever occurred to impede our progress until nearly three o'clock in the afternoon, when my Yemtschik became so confused by the *vodka* he had intemperately indulged that he left the road and ran the *troika* over a log, upsetting it into a bank of snow, but we escaped injury. This episode was too common to be mentioned but for the fact that our vehicle was so badly broken that we stopped nearly two hours making repairs, and after going only a short distance further we again broke down, our trouble being a broken shaft and tug, which was caused by the fractious capers of one of the horses.

"It was nearly seven o'clock in the afternoon when I heard the prolonged howl of a wolf, which was directly

answered by several others in different directions. These sounds, however, did not alarm me in the least, for I have heard them too frequently; but it was not long before I saw crossing the roadway ahead of us packs of five and six wolves, while others trotted along behind us in a sneaking manner. I knew these were the skirmishing forces and refrained from shooting, knowing full well that if I should kill one the others would devour him, and once tasting blood and flesh they would seek to finish their repast on us.

"My driver kept the horses in a brisk gallop, realizing more than I did the danger which now threatened. Growing more bold each minute as their numbers increased, the wolves appeared on every side, some coming up within a few feet of our *troika* and then stopping suddenly to stare at us. Such howling I never before or since heard, the forest being apparently full of the hateful brutes, and every howl seeming to multiply the number. At length they grew so fearless that several would run out quickly and snap at the horses and then dart back again. I now saw that it was full time for action, as each moment served to embolden them, and once they should attack our horses little chance would remain for escape. Bringing my gun up, therefore, I shot one of the wolves, and scarcely did his blood stain the snow before not less than one hundred piled on the wounded animal and tore him limb from limb almost instantly. I then fired two other shots into the pack and must have wounded several others, judging from the snarling and growling which succeeded. Looking back to observe the effects of my shots I could see a myriad of wolves running to where the others were feasting, until they were like flies in summer time swarming over a putrefying carcass.

"It was only a few minutes after I had shot, and before we got out of sight of the pack, when every vestige of the wounded wolves had disappeared in the voracious maws of their comrades, and the latter were again soon howling after us.

"The rest which our horses had by reason of the accidents already described was very advantageous to us, for they were now put to their full speed without showing any suffering; but this speed could not avail against the wolves, which gained on us so rapidly that before we had gone six versts from where I fired my first shot they were upon us again. When they reached the *troika* and were ready to spring in, I shot two more, which were immediately pounced upon by the entire pack, so we made another gain of two versts before they left this second feast and were upon us again.

"I had every reason for husbanding my shots, for our escape lay in keeping the wolves from us by killing one of their number at a time, so as to distract the pack. I therefore continued this desultory warfare until my last cartridge had been fired, and we were yet nearly ten versts from Alexandreffsky. I had caused the death of perhaps twenty-five or more wolves, but there was no apparent diminution in number, nor were there any manifestations of abandoning the attack on the part of those that had survived. Our horses had now become badly jaded, my driver almost lost his reason through fright, and the little hope I had left was hardly bright enough to show on a back-ground of despondency. I was not permitted to lapse into a reflective mood, however, for the hungry, carnivorous, blood-loving wolves came after us on lightning feet, their red tongues lolling out between vicious fangs which sometimes snapped together as though they felt our flesh already between their teeth. My gun

was now useless, but I carried it in my muffled robes until the wolves came so near that they tried to leap upon me; then I wielded it as a bludgeon with excellent effect, killing three, or wounding them so that they were fallen upon and quickly devoured. But this successful way of repelling their attacks did not avail us long, for while I combatted with more than a score, nearly ten times that number ran ahead and attacked the horses. I now felt that it was time to abandon hope, cross myself and fall to praying, but our poor horses battled so nobly for life that I was encouraged by their acts. The two outsiders ran on at full speed for nearly a verst, while wolves were hanging at their haunches and throats or cutting great gashes in their legs and sides. I was astonished to see the horses survive so long, but when one fell at length the others could go no further, and here our last efforts were made to protect our lives. My driver, having nothing with which to defend himself, was, despite

THE TREASURY AND GOVERNOR'S HOUSE AT THE ALEXANDREFFSKY PRISON.

my exertions, dragged from his seat by three strong wolves, and as he fell upon the snow his cries for aid almost set me wild. Oh, how the poor fellow prayed and called to me while the ferocious beasts stripped the flesh from his bones until death ended the torture he endured. Our horses shared my driver's fate, while with almost superhuman strength I wielded my gun and scattered about me nearly fifty of the wolves that had attacked myself and driver. How I came out of that fiery furnace alive it is almost impossible for me to say, for I fought for many minutes, which seemed an age, before assistance came in the person of two exile *moujiks* who bravely seized clubs and rushed to my aid. We were almost on the outskirts of Alexandreffsky, and the noise created by our terrible encounter soon brought others to the scene of action. My escape was chiefly due to the successful attack on the horses and driver, their bodies serving to draw away from me nearly all the pack. But when relieved at last, upon examination I found that my clothes were literally in shreds, and on my hands and legs were several severe scratches which, in my excited condition, I had not before discovered.

"The wolves were driven away by shooting and beating, but not until the horses had been almost entirely devoured, and of the guide there only remained a grinning skull bare of flesh, the half of one hand, and a portion of his back and pelvic bone; his limbs had been torn asunder and carried off by greedy members of the pack to some place where they could munch the bones undisturbed. Of my rifle there remained only the barrel, the stock having been broken and lost, and nothing in my possession do I esteem so valuable as this relic of the saddest experience and adventure in all my life."

We all applauded heartily the Governor's story, which

THE GOVERNOR'S RACE WITH A PACK OF WOLVES. 343

was undoubtedly true, and this approbation stimulated others to relate their encounters with wild animals of the northern tundras; but I was too sleepy to take any further interest in Siberian adventures, and stole off to bed.

Having gathered about all the information accessible at Yeniseisk, on the following day I started for Irkoutsk, by way of Krasnoiarsk, distant eight hundred miles. The return trip to Krasnoiarsk was not without trouble on account of snow, which had fallen to a depth of fully six inches; but I decided to hold to my tumbril rather than buy a *troika* (sledge) because I felt quite sure, as did Schleuter, that we should find no snow on the regular transport route, which we would reach in less than two days' travelling.

We had not proceeded more than half a dozen miles from Yeniseisk before I saw two wolves dart across the road about one hundred yards ahead of us. Quickly the Ispravnik's story came back to me and I pictured myself in the midst of a ferocious pack with not so much as a club for defence. Every few minutes my forebodings were intensified by seeing one or more wolves not far distant from us, a fact which did not appear to give Schleuter the least alarm, while I was continually forming resolutions what to do when "worse should come to worse."

Let me assure the reader that we did not camp out; so far from being satisfied with a big fire and a warm bed in the tumbril, I was quite willing to forego comforts for the protection of an inn, one of which we found about nine o'clock in the evening.

"Expect nothing and you will not be disappointed," is an old saying which none should forget while travelling in Siberia, but its moral was lost on me when, on proceeding to bed at the inn, I found no where to lay

my head except on the floor, and no coverings except those of my own providing. But there were no wolves, bears or dreadful night-mares, so that the night was spent with really less discomfort than I had anticipated.

Upon arriving at Krasnoiarsk I sold my three horses for the same money I had paid for them and started on to Irkoutsk by post conveyance, which is more than twice as rapid as I could have travelled with a single team. We lost no time in preparation, but immediately after disposing of my horses we got a fresh team and a *yemtschik* who was lineally descended from Jehu. It is astonishing how rapidly one can travel in Siberia when he is willing to pay for fast driving. It is told that the late Czar on one occasion sent a courier to Irkoutsk with instructions to bring back to St. Petersburg, at the earliest possible moment, a distinguished person who had been exiled and was at the time in the Irkoutsk mines. So regardful was the courier of his order that he brought the offender from Irkoutsk to St. Petersburg—distance 3,500 miles—in just *eleven days*, making the incredible speed of three hundred and eighteen miles per day, or fourteen miles per hour. Having no desire to exaggerate this story I will say that 1,000 miles of the journey was performed by rail, and perhaps 500 by steamer. But it is not an uncommon thing for the Czar's couriers to make 200 miles per day. In such cases the horses must suffer, though each relay is driven not more than twelve or fifteen miles. When extraordinary haste is necessary everything must give way on the road to the courier, who telegraphs ahead for horses, and has the swiftest reserved for him. When an animal falls dead in harness, which they frequently do, the courier cuts off one ear from the horse, and drives on, with the remaining horses, to the next station. The ears thus preserved are shown to the

INTERIOR OF IMPERIAL CHURCH.

Czar as a proof of the speed with which the courier executed his mission.

Four days of rapid travelling brought us to Irkoutsk, which is 600 miles from Krasnoiarsk. On the road we passed only one small convoy of prisoners, the officers of which I did not consider it worth my time to interrogate, as they were half-drunk and inclined to be quarrelsome.

At Nijni Udinsk we stopped only a short time, preferring not to visit the mines there until upon my return, as I was anxious to reach Irkoutsk in time to see the races, which I was told had already begun and would continue only two or three days longer.

CHAPTER XIX.

Irkoutsk is a handsome city, situated very much like New York, being built on a tongue of land formed by a sharp curve in the Angara River. The place contains a population of nearly 35,000, and among its buildings are a score of churches of elegant architectural design and expensive finish.

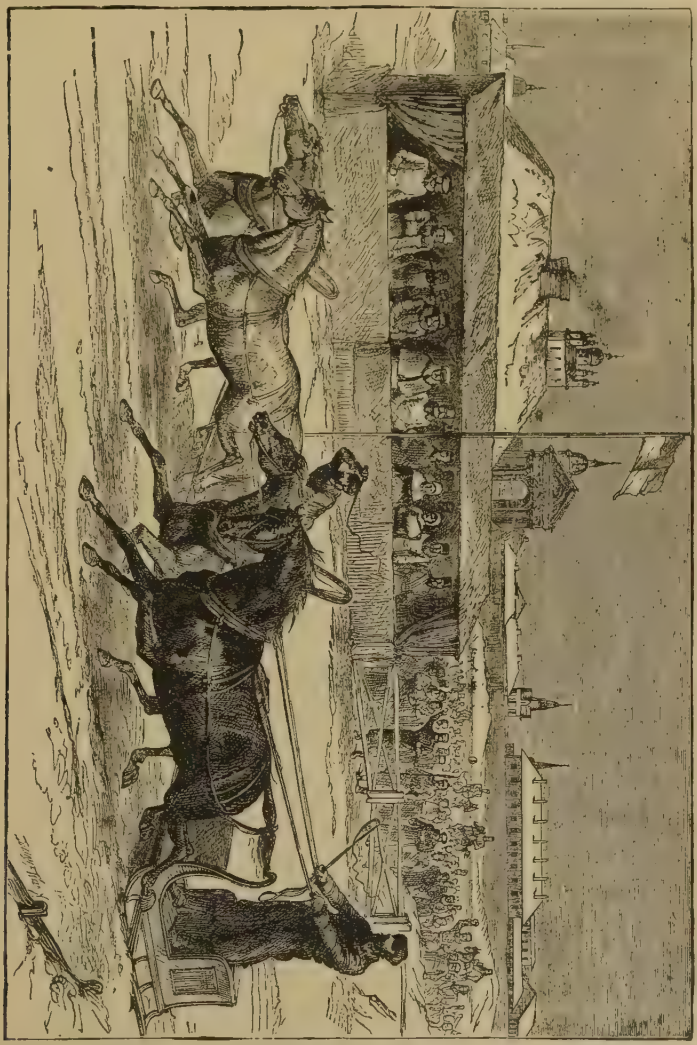
We had to cross the Angara by hand-ferry, but upon reaching the city's side more than a dozen droshky drivers beseiged us, like hackmen in American cities, one of whom we engaged to take us and our luggage to Decoque's hotel, where I was rejoiced to find that the manager could speak a little English.

Irkoutsk is next to Yeniseisk in age, having been founded in 1680, the former in 1618. It has become the greatest mart on the overland route between China and Russia, while many of the more devout, whose minds incline constantly to sacred things, regard it as a holy city,

particularly as Siberia's patron saint lies buried there. The climate is said to be very fine, except in the fall, when heavy fogs prevail that are infinitely more disagreeable than the rainy season in San Francisco, which is saying a great deal. My experience may be exceptional, but it has always happened that in visiting a strange country I invariably arrive just in the very worst season,—or at least the natives tell me so. But I have suspected, many times, that these assurances of exceptional weather proceeded from local prejudice, or the common love for home place. Any how, I struck Irkoutsk in a bad spell, for it was not only snowing with great violence but there was a fearful wind blowing which seemed to gather up big drifts of snow for the sole purpose of dashing them into people's eyes. This wretched blizzard put a temporary stop to horse racing, but during the night there occurred a great change for the better, the wind ceased entirely, and when morning broke Aurora burst upon a beautiful scene. At breakfast every one present was talking about the races, and when I went out upon the street nothing else seemed to be thought of. In fact I soon learned that horse racing at Irkoutsk served the same purpose there that pool-rooms and market quotations in exchanges and bucket-shops do in this country—they are the popular resources of speculators.

I drove out about noon with my guide to the race-course, which was a mile track situated some distance out of the city proper, and only partly enclosed by a very low fence. On that side the track next to the town there was a pavillion, in which the Governor, judges, and a few other privileged persons stood—seats were nowhere provided—and conducted the racing. I was amused to witness the preparations, as they are so unlike the preliminaries made by jockeys in other countries. The training

to which horses entered for racing are subjected appears very harsh, if not inhumanly cruel, and generally lasts



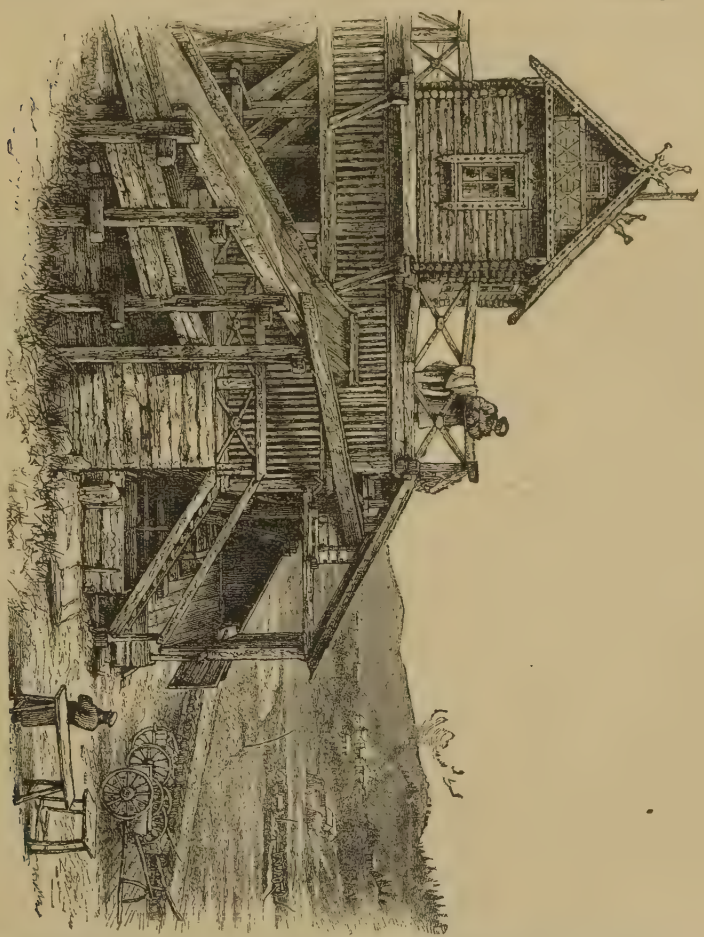
HORSE RACING AT IRKOUTSK.

for three weeks. This training consists in riding the horses for several hours each day at their greatest speed and

until they are covered with foam; they are then tied out in an open field over night, under a sharp frost, so that the perspiration may freeze in a white coat over their bodies; the Siberians declare that this treatment (which would kill nearly any ordinary horse) hardens the muscles and at the same time makes the horse more supple. In addition to this they will not allow their horses a drop of water for forty-eight hours preceding the race, their theory being that water distends the animal's stomach and proves a serious impediment to its speed. Horses used in the races are not ridden, but driven to a sledge, to which two animals are attached, but in reality only one does all the pulling, the other being used only to encourage the draught horse. All Siberian horses have enormous manes and tails, the former reaching to their knees and the latter often dragging a foot or more on the ground; but that this profuse growth may not interfere with the running, the tail and mane are tied up in leather straps which impart a rather grotesque appearance to the horses.

After witnessing several races I returned to the city and paid a visit to the prisons, which are located on a level strip of ground on the opposite shore of the Irkut River, a small stream which bounds one side of Irkoutsk. I was chagrined, however, on applying for admission to the prison to meet with a flat refusal, and though I produced my letter from the St. Petersburg ministry requesting that every facility be afforded me in my investigations, the officer was none the less obstinate, but before leaving he told me I would be admitted on the following day. I was therefore compelled to return and await his disposition, which leisure interval I improved by returning to Irkoutsk to gather such stray facts as might offer. Through rare fortune I fell in with an exile who had served several years in the mines at Kara, under a hard

labor sentence, but through the influence of friends at St. Petersburg had the remainder of his sentence commuted to simple exile in the Irkoutsk Government. Through



GOLD MINE AND WASHING HOUSE AT KARA.

Schleuter I obtained from this unfortunate man a thorough and undeniably truthful statement of the treatment accorded to convicts in the Kara mines, and I present it here with the full assurance that it is not in the least ex-

aggerated, for Schleuter himself had many ways of verifying and attesting all the facts.

His statements to me, made in the course of several hours of conversation, embrace the following interesting facts:

The mines at Kara are noted throughout all Russia for the atrocious treatment dealt out to convicts who may be sent there. A large majority of the Siberian gold mines are no longer worked by convict labor, having passed into the hands of private capitalists, but that at Kara is one of those still operated by Government authority with convicts who are sentenced to hard labor. Both gold and silver are found at Kara, but mining for the former is so much more profitable that the little silver gathered is from double running in reducing the gold-bearing quartz.

Generally, the number of miners at Kara are from 300 to 500, and their daily labor is from 13 to 15 hours according to the favor which they may find in the officers' eyes. In 1857 there was a law passed in Russia, which may be found in Article 569, providing for the punishment of convicts. According to this law all those sentenced to hard labor must wear heavy irons on their wrists and ankles for the period of two years, which is called the probation sentence; if, at the end of two years, the convict is reported as having conducted himself in a humble, contrite and thoroughly acceptable manner to the officer in whose charge the exile may be, then this first sentence is considered served, and he begins on the second part of his sentence, which is apportioned as follows: Those condemned for life must wear the heaviest shackles for a period of eight years (additional to the probation sentence); those condemned for twenty years wear the shackles six years; for fifteen years, they wear

them four years; for twelve years, they wear them three years; for eight years, they wear them two years; for six years, they wear them eighteen months; and for four years, twelve months. So that in any event a hard labor exile must wear the most galling fetters upon his hands and ankles for a period of not less than three years. But this law, harsh, nay inhuman in all its phases, does not disclose all the heinousness of its application by officials in Siberia entrusted with its administration, for since ignorant and more brutal guards are made the censors of each exile's conduct, it is in their power to indefinitely extend the probationary period and keep a poor sufferer in chains so long as the guard's own pleasure may dictate. That this is the construction put upon the law by many Governors of penal colonies cannot be disputed in the face of a thousand living witnesses now slowly dying from torture and exposure in the eastern mines where it is applied.

In justice to Russia it must be said, however, that the crimes thus committed against humanity are only indirectly chargable to the Government; some discretionary powers must be accorded Governors of penal districts lying so remote from the chief administration; that this necessary power should sometimes be abused is so natural that the result is identical in all countries, being co-extensive with the good and bad qualities of human nature. Not a few instances have occurred where Governors with brutal tendencies have been recalled to St. Petersburg and upon the establishment of charges preferred against them for cruelty, they have suffered the penalty of a stern and exacting law.

Another erroneous impression prevails very generally, but which has not the slightest foundation in fact, viz.: that exiles are compelled to labor in quick-silver mines

until their hair falls out and the flesh drops away from their bones. This error is inexcusable, because there is no such thing as a quick-silver mine in all Siberia; and yet the Government has been time and again charged (by those who must know that they are falsifying facts) with forcing thousands of men and women down into these caverns of insidious death each year. The truth concerning convict labor in the mines is dreadful enough, without any exaggeration or misrepresentation.

For many years the mining at Kara was conducted above ground, but as the placers became exhausted tunnels were sunk which resulted in the finding of much richer gold-bearing ore than the placers yielded. This discovery, though highly beneficial to the Government, proved disastrous to those whose enforced labor had uncovered the new auriferous deposits. Men who before were compelled to work fifteen hours each day with taskmasters over them, had, at least, the blessed sun-light to kiss their heads like sympathetic ministrations from heaven; they could hear, in summer time, the cheerful songs of many birds, and in winter there were great fields of snow laughing under the inconstant sun, or grown so bleak that all nature appeared to share the convicts' hardships. It is astonishing what inconsiderable circumstances serve to console one when doomed to the never pitying injustice of those appointed to watch over and punish hard-labor exiles. To many of the superstitious unfortunates there is luck in having a bird perch on a branch above them; good news is expected to follow the song of a bird after sunset, and should a bird light upon the shovel or barrow of a convict it presages to the one who handles the implement, news from home promising his speedy release. So are the moonbeams considered as harbingers of fate; if a convict be wakened at night

by the moon shining in his face, he regards it as an omen of fortune: that he will hear from home, be transferred to more comfortable quarters, or in some other way become the legatee of good luck.

All ambitions, hopes, and agreeable superstitions are suppressed in the heart of every exile when he is forced to labor underground; it is to them a departure from the earth into the abodes of evil spirits where mercy is unknown. In consequence of this very prevalent belief among exiles they suffer in mind more perhaps than physically, from the extreme punishment which is really inflicted upon them.

In Kara, my informant assured me, as described on page 229 of a work entitled "The Russians of To-Day," "there are scores who never see the light of day, but work and sleep all the year round in the depths of the earth, extracting silver under the eyes of task-masters, who have orders not to spare them. Iron gates guarded by sentries close the lodes, or streets, at the bottom of the shafts, and miners are railed off from one another in gangs of twenty. They sleep within recesses hewn out of the rock—very kennels—into which they must creep on all fours." Nearly all these prisoners are constantly loaded with chains, while each has a daily task to perform, or come under the terrible discipline of the knout, plete, or scorpion.

Nearly all the convicts at Kara are political offenders, against whom there is such prejudice among Government officials that they are tortured to the limit of cruel ingenuity; it is not one in twenty that can survive the cruelties inflicted here without becoming hopelessly insane. There is a prison-hospital established at Kara in which none are cared for except those who receive corporal punishment from the officers. So inhumanly se-

vere is this administration of injustice that after its application the poor victim is little more than a piece of bleeding, unconscious flesh; from the room of punishment he is carried to a ward, provided with small cots, at the foot of which is written the word "Costegcetis," meaning, "an offender well birched." But though it is called a hospital, the treatment is little calculated to improve the patients' condition, they being literally left to help themselves, the policy being that a dead convict is better than a live one. This ward exceeds in terror any portions of an insane asylum; the poor sufferers are either dumb from unconsciousness, or raving with delirium; some are lying like sheeted ghosts, their eyes half-closed, and one might suppose them dead but for their deep and sonorous respiration, indicative of approaching dissolution; others are talking in a wild and incoherent manner of their wrongs; or perhaps picturing the loved face of some friend or relative back in Russia to whom they talk in terms of rare affection; others yet are storming with a passion directed by a mind from which reason has fled; while lastly, on this or that dirty cot is a body purple, distorted, with blearing but vacant eyes, the very image of powerful agony, the hands clenched and stiff, happily —dead. The poor wretches, not a few of whom have been delicately nurtured, and whose crimes are opposition to a Government which they regard as oppressive, never receive one word of sympathy, nor are their most imperative needs attended to. Those whose brutality can punish so severely are not the persons whom we might expect would give a morsel of compassion to their victims.

At Kara an instrument is used to punish convicts which differs from any others in use, so far as the knowledge of my informant extended. He described it as

three large pieces of raw hide, each three feet long, with knots on the end like on knouts; these three thongs are plaited together at one end so as to make a handle, while the other ends are loose. A castigation with this instrument is next to an application of the scorpion. The several modes of punishment practiced at Kara are: whipping with the knout, plete, and the instrument just described, and sometimes, though rarely, with the scorpion; the convicts are also disciplined by being shut up in dungeons, by slow starvation, increasing their irons, placing them in beds of freezing water, and such other tortures as the ingenuity of vicious officers may suggest.

But in addition to these cruelties, all prisoners brought to the Kara mines for hard labor are branded on the forehead and cheeks with three letters, K A T, which is an abreviation of *Katarjnik*, meaning a hard labor convict. The instrument used for this purpose is shaped like a cup, the larger end being provided with needles set so as to pierce the skin to a depth of about one-sixteenth of an inch in the shape of the three letters. The convict is bound to an upright post in an immovable position, and then the instrument is applied to the forehead and each cheek, after which a caustic liquid is rubbed briskly on the fresh wounds. This produces the most intense pain, which does not abate for several days, as the liquid aggravates the wounds and generally causes them to suppurate. When, after weeks, the brand is healed, conspicuous scars are left which endure for life; thus a man who receives this stigma, however undeserved it may be, is doomed to parade his disgrace to all the world. My informant showed me the brands he had received, which resembled large and angry ring-worms that had assumed lettered shapes.

The female convicts at Kara receive much more con-

siderate treatment than the men; they are not compelled to labor in the mines, but are closely confined in iron cells at night and made to perform menial chores, and are in servitude to the officers during the day time. Nearly all those who are there confined are under sentence for murdering their husbands, a crime of great frequency in Russia where wives receive little other treatment than blows. Indeed, under the earlier laws of the Russian Church it was a portion of the prescribed ceremony of marriage for the groom to carry with him to the altar a small whip, which he lay lightly upon the bride's back as a token that she should be subject to all his wishes or caprices. During the prevalence of this strange nuptial rite there was a law in Russia which punished wives who murdered their husbands by burying them alive up to their necks, and then turning dogs loose to feed on the exposed heads.

My informant said that the danger incurred in attempts to escape was so great that comparatively few convicts, even if they had an opportunity, would take the risk. They would not only subject themselves to penalties provided by a law which was construed by inhuman officials, but would have to run the risk of starvation, and also the chance of being shot by some of the Siberian tribes who hunt convicts as they would wild beasts, shooting them down in order to rob them of their clothes.

I was greatly interested in the exile's relation of how convicts are treated at Kara; the fellow was well educated for a Russian peasant, and he did not appear to have any particular prejudices against the Government. He had served fifteen years at Kara for having, with several students at Kasan, incited a political disturbance in which threats of assassination had been freely expressed. His

sentence was twenty years at hard labor, but, through the influence of friends at home, after serving three-fourths of his time the remainder of his sentence was commuted to simple exile in the Irkoutsk district; he was therefore free to go whither he willed inside the territory, and might have engaged in business, but I believe he was doing nothing except a little hunting and fishing.

On the following day I again applied for admission to the Irkoutsk prisons, but my success was not much better than before; in fact, so unsatisfactory that no description of the prisons or treatment accorded the convicts could be obtained except from persons in no wise connected with the management, so I was compelled to return to Irkoutsk and conduct my investigations through such sources as were afforded, but these I soon found quite sufficient. The suspicion may have been already excited that such information as I have given is hardly worthy full credence because of having been received from exiles whose prejudices might lead them into great exaggerations. Before proceeding further I hope to relieve this impression by saying, that I had opportunities for verifying, in a general way, all the stories I received from exiles; interviewing more than a dozen who had served long periods in the mines, I would have been liable to detect any misstatement, especially since I did not talk with more than one exile at a time. In all their several statements not the least inconsistency appeared, while each declaration was further confirmed to me by business men in the various towns I visited in Siberia. I did not attempt to interview any prison official, because Mr. Lansdell's example was before me; that they would protect themselves by hiding behind a mountain of misrepresentations and denials is perfectly natural, notwithstanding their statements are made in the very face of established

facts. I saw with my own eyes quite enough of the horrible treatment of Siberian exiles to make me regard nearly any story of torture inflicted on Russian convicts appear as not improbable, but I have not the least disposition to spread the terrible tales of exile suffering which have grown, by the accretions of repetition, to monstrous proportions. My desire is to tell nothing but the truth, and to this end I have not and will not repeat any statement that I have not sifted and found to rest upon the very strongest circumstantial evidence.

CHAPTER XX.

Irkoutsk is so situated that it is an excellent point from whence to gather information respecting the natives of Siberia, particularly as a majority of these tribes inhabit the northern section and make that city their central trading station. It is said there are thirty different tribes in all Siberia, among the more prominent being Tartars, Ostjaks, Samoyeds, Kirghiz, Jacuts, Goldi, Buriats, Zyrians, Koriaks, Tchapogirs, Jukagires, Vogules, Kamtchadals, Coreans, Yakoutes, Gilyaks, Chukchees and Tunguse.

The Ostjaks, of whom I have already written, have some claim to be considered as the aboriginal inhabitants of Siberia, occupying the north-western region. They are principally found in rude settlements scattered along the banks of the Ob or Obi, as far north as Tobolsk. Their chief occupations are fishing and hunting. The former yields them abundant means of subsistence, as the rivers teem with fish; and hunting supplies them with valuable furs for barter. Some of the Ostjaks lead

a kind of pastoral life, and keep large herds of reindeer, which furnish them with both food and clothing. In summer they live in wretched temporary huts, framed of boughs and covered with birch bark. Their filthy bodies are but scantily clad. Small in stature, lean and lank, with a scared, hang-dog look, and a stupid expression on their broad ugly faces, they seem a degraded race. It is true that on the water they show to better advantage in their light skiffs or canoes, which they manage with

OSTJAKS IN WINTER DRESS.

wonderful dexterity. But the Ostjak is only seen at his best in winter, and in that far north which is his home. There he leads the primitive life for which he is best suited; and there, warmly clad in the skin of the reindeer, while swiftly gliding on his snow-shoes in pursuit of game, or bounding along in the "narta," the sledge drawn by dogs or deer, he may feel himself the true lord of the snowy wilderness that stretches to the Arctic Ocean. The winter habitations of the Ostjaks are rude

dwellings, built of logs, with an opening at the top for the smoke. The light is admitted by means of a rough but ingenious contrivance. An aperture made in the hut is fitted with a large block of ice, which serves as a window, and is renewed at will when it thaws. The dress worn by the Ostjaks is of reindeer skins. It consists of, first, a fur coat, which is seamless, and is slipped on over the head and reaches to the knee; next, drawers of the same material, fastening round the body;

SAMOYED FROM THE LOWER YENISEI.

FEMALE SAMOYED.

lastly, fur boots, with the hair turned inside. Over this dress is worn another, of which the various parts are the same, only that the skins are those of the old reindeer, the hair of which is thicker and longer.

Beyond the Arctic Circle, near the Kara Sea, and along the estuaries of the Ob and the Yenisei, dwell the Samoyeds, who in many points resemble the Ostjaks. They, too, lead a kind of nomadic life, roaming about in quest of pastures for their reindeer, of which they possess

large herds. They are more inclined to the chase than to fishing. Keen and bold hunters, they do not even shrink from encountering, single-handed, the huge polar bear, with no other weapon than the bow, or a knife fastened to a pole. They bring to market, at Obdorsk, on the Ob and Yeniseisk, the choicest furs; among the rest, a peculiar variety of wolfskin, much prized by the natives. The Samoyeds are tall and slender, but the women small. The dress of the latter is far more elegant than that of their Ostjak neighbors. It is not made of deerskins, but of the different furs, carefully selected with a view to effect.

The Kirghiz Tartars are more southernly in their habitations, and besides being warlike in disposition are frequently highwaymen, who have time and again been the terror of Siberian travel. They are chiefly engaged raising horses and cattle, but though they pursue this vocation generally with profit they cannot resist the promptings of a nature inherited from generation to generation, and therefore forage, pillage, rob, with that same relish exhibited by their Tartar ancestors many hundred years ago. Even within the last few years they have been guilty of many abductions, which is a revival of their earlier practices. Like the Albanians who, during the controversy with Montenegro in 1877, made descents upon unprotected villages near the border and carried off the most attractive female Montenegrins, so the Kirghiz have recently despoiled their Thibetan neighbors and made captive many women, carrying them off to their ranches and subjecting them to servitude.

The Buriats inhabit a district in the Trans-Baikal—that is, beyond Lake Baikal. They are not very numerous, but not a few possess considerable wealth and dress in a style which, if not exactly magnificently fashionable, is

ON THE BRINK OF A CHASM, VALLEY OF THE YENISEI.

very expensive. Many of them live in Yakoutsk, Chita and other far eastern cities, where the females wear dresses and jewelry of great value; but those leading a pastoral life live in tents like most of our western Indians.

The Goldi are a small tribe, numbering about 5,000, located along the Amoor river, which is the dividing line between Siberia and China, and in the Ussuri district. They are nearly allied to the Tunguse in habits and language, but being on the Chinese border and mixing with the Manchu, they imitate them in many particulars. Formerly the Goldi did not bury their dead, but carried them to a dead house where the bodies were left until destroyed by time. Notwithstanding the dreadful exhalations of this charnal house friends of the departed paid frequent visits to the building to mourn and pray for their dead.

The Gilyaks are a tribe whose numbers I found no one could approximate. They inhabit a portion of the Island Sakhalein, and also a district adjoining that occupied by the Goldi, but there is so great a difference between them that no one single feature, in either habit or appearance, is common to them both. The Gilyaks have so great an aversion for water that they never learn to swim or wash themselves. Their subsistence is derived from fishing and hunting, fish being taken by nets, and sometimes by spearing. They are polygamists, esteeming women of no more value than their dogs, but polyandry is also practiced; in case where a woman has a patrimony of fair estimation, so many sledge-dogs, so much brandy, or so many valuable skins, she can buy as many husbands as her means will afford; but polyandry is seldom practiced among them, while polygamy is very general. They are the most ignorant people to be found in Siberia, and in many respects are like the Congo tribes

in Central Africa. Sickness among them is treated by wearing amulets, and such fatalists are they that on no account would one Gilyak attempt to save another's life.

A GOLDI DEAD-HOUSE.

These people, though ignorant almost beyond belief, are uncommonly brave, and while they have many superstitions, there is little connected with their faith that inspires terror. They prefer hunting to any other employment, but still use only primitive weapons for taking

game; yet there is a superstition which prevents them from hunting the tiger or wolf. In Western Siberia and Eastern Russia the peasants will not kill a wolf because, as it was explained to me, "the surviving companions or friends of a wolf will avenge the dead one."

GOLDI IN WINTER DRESS.

Many told me that if a peasant refused to kill a wolf his flocks would never be molested, but if he did do so the wolves would be sure to destroy his stock.

Bear hunting among the Gilyaks is most exciting sport,

because it is conducted something after the fashion once practiced by ancient Norwegians. Their weapon consists of a long pole, to one end of which is attached, by means of small strips of raw-hide, a steel spear four inches long and two inches broad; there is also another weapon used, but not so commonly as the former, which is made by wrapping several sharp-pointed spikes together so that their points will extend outward something like the bristles of a hedge-hog when rolled up; this chevaux-de-frize is firmly fastened to a long pole, which is then used like the spear. This latter weapon is employed to worry the bear by first

GROUP OF GILYAKS.

irritating the animal until, enraged, it rushes upon its assailant; the Gilyak hunter then defends himself by presenting his spiked weapon, which the bear seizes only to wound itself; more violently enraged with these self-inflicted injuries, the bear endeavors to destroy the spikes by biting and squeezing them, until it actually kills itself.

In using the spear there is really more danger incurred than from the spiked weapon, for when a bear is wounded with a spear it attacks the hunter, who sometimes be-

comes the victim. Nothing can equal, for ferocity and vitality, the Grizzly bear of North America, but next to this animal certainly comes the Russian bear, which is equal in all respects to the Grizzly, except in vital powers. Yet terrible as it is when fully aroused, the Gilyaks not only attack and slay, with no other weapon than a long spear, the most powerful Russian bears, but they also capture them alive to provide amusement at annual feasts. To capture these dangerous animals a party of eight to a dozen men provide themselves with lassoes, chains, collars and a muzzle, and in company seek their game. Upon finding a bear, however large it may be, they proceed to take it prisoner in the following manner: Scattering out in a circle they surround the bear and gradually contract the circle by driving the animal towards the center, always taking great care not to excite it. Dogs are not used at such times, because they would enrage the bear and cause it to break precipitately, so that a capture would be impossible. When the circle becomes sufficiently contracted everything is made ready for two men to cast ther lassoes, and while the attention of the bear is directed towards one or more persons, another of the party nimbly leaps upon the bear's back, as the lassoes are thrown, and catching bruin by the ears hold his head, assisted by others with the lassoes; a collar and muzzle are next adjusted on poor bruin, and he then becomes a helpless captive. Should any of the hunters be wounded in these dangerous attempts, which they very frequently are, they think themselves lucky, as such wounds are considered evidences of prowess, and to be killed by a bear is esteemed a happy death.

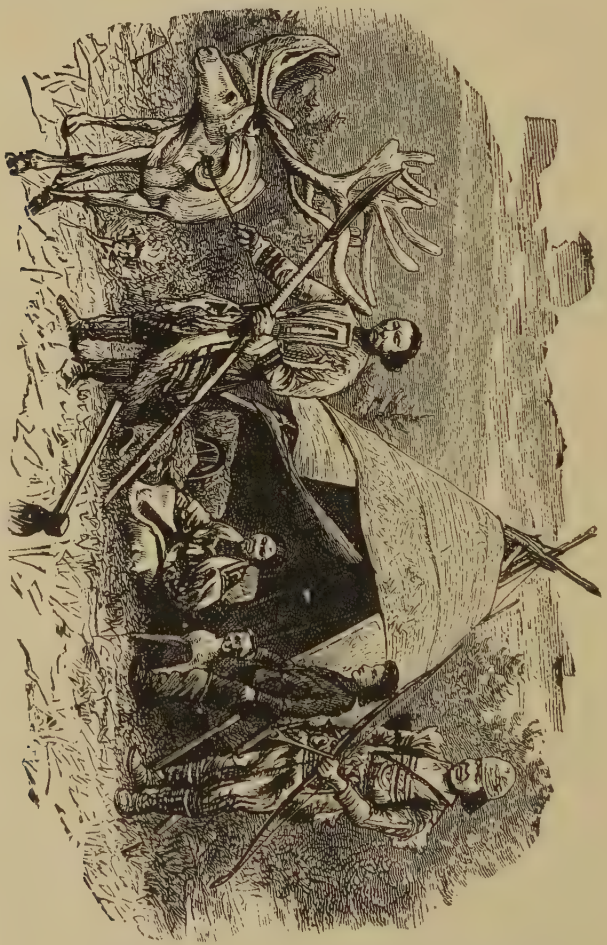
Bears thus caught are taken to the nearest village, where they are kept and fatted on fish, for the approaching festival. The most important fete day among these

FESTIVAL OF KILLING THE BEAR.

1. Gilyaks of the Upper Class, and Dog. 2. Bear Trap. 3. Wolf Trap. 4. Fish and Tackle.

strange people occurs early in January, but on no particular date, as the Gilyaks reckon time by the moon. On this occasion the captured bear is taken from its cage and shackled so it can commit no harm, is dragged or driven all around the village and halted before each house, where some cabalistic words are repeated, supposed to bring good luck. After this part of the ceremony is completed, they lead the animal to some place for water, and also serve it with a platter of food; should the bear take both water and food the sacrifice is postponed, but owing to its anger it always refuses. The bear is now dragged to the place of sacrifice, where it is made fast between two posts by means of raw hide ropes connected with its collar. Then succeed orgies not unlike those practiced by several tribes of Indians about their sacrifices. The bear is beaten with sticks and stones in order to make it growl, for manifestations of pain and anger from the animal are taken as answers to the entreaties of those engaged in the sacrifice for good luck. When at length the bear becomes exhausted, the honor of shooting it through the heart with an arrow is accorded to one who is chosen chief of the ceremonies for that day. After its death the bear's head and paws are cut off, the former being presented to the village patriarch, and to which prayers are offered for a period of six weeks. The paws are divided between four popular persons at the feast, who keep them for good luck, sometimes wearing them for years tied to a string about the neck. In passing through a Gilyak settlement it is very common to find the ears, jaw-bones, skulls and paws of bears killed in such sacrifices as I have described, hung up in trees, where they are supposed to exercise a most serviceable influence in keeping off evil spirits and bringing good luck to the village.

In the Island Sakhalein these ceremonials of bear killing are much more frequent than on the Siberian shore, for the reason perhaps that the Gilyaks are more nu



TUNGUSE FAMILY AND BIRCH-BARK TENT.

merous on Sakhalein and because their customs are not intertered with or influenced by neighboring tribes.

The Tunguse are a very numerous people inhabiting

many parts of Siberia. They are very much like the Manchu of China, in appearance, while in habits they assimilate with the Esquimaux, being found as far north as the Arctic Ocean. In March these people go on snow-shoes over snow, into which, at that season, cloven-footed animals sink, and shoot elks, roe, and musk deer, wild deer and goats; the tent being fixed in valleys and defiles, where the snow lies deepest. In April the ice on the rivers begins to move, and the huntsman, now turned fisher, hastens to the small rivulets to net his fish. Those not required for immediate use are dried against the next month, which is one of the least plentiful in the year. In May they shoot deer and other game, which they have decoyed to certain spots by burning down the high grass in the valleys, so that the young sprouts may attract the deer and goats. June supplies the hunter with antlers of the roe. These they sell at a high price to the Chinese for medicinal purposes. In July the natives spend a large part of the month catching fish, taken with nets or speared with harpoons. They are able also to spear the elk, which likes a water-plant growing in the lakes. He comes down at night, wades into the water, and, whilst engaged in tearing at the plant with his teeth, is killed by the huntsman. In August they catch birds, speared at night in the retired creeks and bays of the rivers and lakes. Their flesh, except that of the swan, is eaten, and the down is exchanged for ear and finger rings, bracelets, beads, and the like. Thus they spend the summer months, afterward retiring again to the mountains for game. In the beginning of September they prepare for winter pursuits. With these people there is very little of civilization found; they live in birch-bark tents, and delight in hunting on the tundras; horses are not

favorably regarded by them, their domestic draught animals being reindeer and dogs; of the former they possess immense herds, so that the fortune of a Tunguse is estimated entirely by the number of reindeer he owns.

The Kirghiz, who are distinct from the Kirghiz Tartars, are the largest framed people in Siberia. Some of them own large herds of cattle and horses, in South Siberia, and have some pretensions of refinement, living in wooden houses and adopting a few customs which evidence civilization; but as a rule they are beggarly, indolent rapscallions of the plains.

They are met with in nearly all the larger cities, plying their tricks of juggling, fortune telling and begging; they have not the least acquaintance with work or cleanliness, and as a tribe they are generally despised.

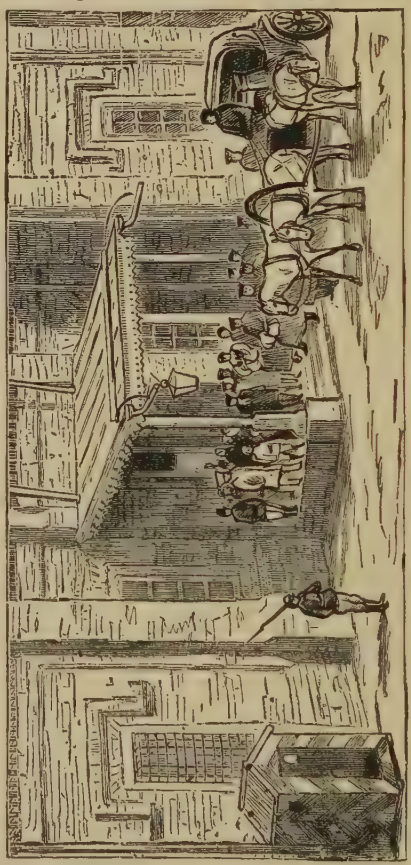
The numerous other tribes of native Siberians are hardly worthy of mention, because their numbers are very small, and in many respects they are so nearly assimilated to the principal tribes by intermarriage and nationality that only an ethnologist can distinguish the tribal peculiarities of them all.

CHAPTER XXI.

My journey eastward was concluded at Irkoutsk, which I regarded rightfully as the central point of Siberia, at which could be daily met people of all ranks from every part of the Empire. I was pleased to find that my opinion was correct and that here was afforded full and ample means of collecting all the facts appertaining to exile and commercial life in that portion of the Empire. Situated within less than seventy miles of lake Baikal,

375 TUNGUSE HUNTERS.

the largest fresh water body on the eastern hemisphere, on which ply numerous steamers deriving their business chiefly from the overland travel and freightage, and being midway on the great transport route, the city could not be otherwise than cosmopolitan and important. Its commercial features exceed those of Irbit, since in 1879 that large and finest city in Siberia was almost totally destroyed by fire. At all seasons may be found on the streets of Irkoutsk and in its hotels, representatives from all over Europe. A great deal of gold and silver, in fact nearly all the native product from east of Tomsk, is taken to Irkoutsk for refinement and coinage. Nearly every day gold trains, guarded by large convoys, or bags of gold-dust conveyed by tarantass, arrive in the city, while long files of merchants with goods from China or Russia pass through its streets, so that an air of business is always maintained.



ARRIVAL OF GOLD DUST, BY TARANTASS, AT IRKOUTSK.

On the second day of my stay in Irkoutsk I became acquainted with an American gentleman who was engaged in running a small steamer on the Amoor, but he made so many trips to Irkoutsk on business that his acquaintance with prominent people of the city was quite extensive. His name was Robert M. Gunsollis, and his native place a small town in Robinson county, Kentucky. He was very glad to see me, and upon disclosing to him the purposes of my visit to Siberia, he took great interest in assisting me. Through his kind services I secured an introduction to the Governor of Irkoutsk, and several merchants, all of whom tendered me their kind offices. Mr. Gunsollis was a traveller, and only six months before I saw him he had been on the island of Sakhalein spending several weeks among the natives and convicts. Being a close observer and an uncommonly intelligent man, he had gathered a great deal of information of much value to the world at large, and as we spent an evening together he gave me the advantage of his newly acquired knowledge respecting Sakhalein.

This island, which is nearly 600 miles in length, and about as large in area as the State of Illinois, was not explored until the year 1848, previous to which time it was supposed to be a portion of the Siberian, or Manchurian mainland. Along the coast it is generally very rocky and precipitous, while in the interior there is a chain of mountains which rise considerably above the limit of vegetation. Nearly every part of the island is wild and desolate, with a population of 15,000 persons, divided between Gilyaks, Tunguse, Oroks, Kuriles, and Ainos, the latter supposed to be the aboriginal population, while all the natives subsist on fish and wild game.

Nevilskoy, Rear Admiral of the Russian navy, landed on the island in 1848 and accomplished a partial explora-

tion. He found it rich with coal, and this discovery led his Government to negotiate with Japan (to which the island belonged) for its purchase. Russia was in great need of a coaling station in the Pacific, and this want was supplied by a purchase of the island about twelve years ago. Directly after the acquirement of this desolate wilderness, suggestions were made to Alexander II. which subsequently led that Emperor to establish penal colonies on the island, by which labor many coal mines were opened and are still worked.

AINOS, ABORIGINES OF SAKHALEIN.

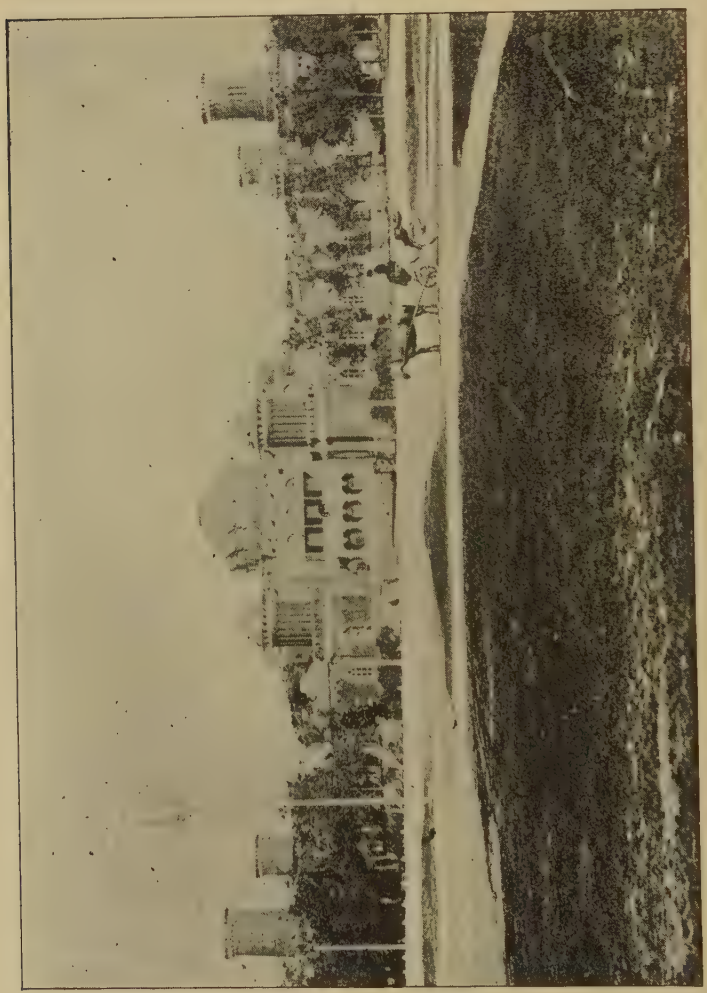
The port of Dui, which is situated about the center of the western coast, is a small military station, but is nevertheless the most important place on the Island. It contains five prisons, all of which are small buildings, in which are crowded nearly 2,000 exiles. In winter the atmosphere is freezing cold, and but for the crowding

it would be impossible for the convicts to survive even a moderate winter; as it is, frost-bitten hands and feet are very common among the inmates. From Dui, the exiles are distributed to various parts of the island as prescribed in their sentences.

The post is garrisoned by 500 men whose inactivity and severance from social relations cause their existence to be scarcely less unhappy than the exiles whom they guard. About one hundred miles south of Dui is another post called Korsakovsk, where a small force of soldiers is stationed, whose lonesome, unchangeable lives are even unrelieved by the sight of the supply vessels which put in at Dui two or three times a year.

Out in the interior are two mines, one of which is called Dui mine and the other Dui farm, where a large number of convicts are employed, but the coal lies so near the surface that all convicts there engaged luckily escape the horrors of deep mining; but while they are not forced down into black caverns, away forever from the blessed sunlight, as are many convicts in Siberian mines, their lots are but one degree less melancholy; in fact it would sometimes appear that officials on Sakhalein are more devilishly barbarous than are those at Kara. The knout and scorpion are used almost without the shadow of a cause; malignantly brutal keepers, never so content as when witnessing the agonies of extreme suffering, expend all their surplus force by exercising with instruments of torture upon the bared backs of convicts. The labor performed in these mines is not so onerous as in many mines in Siberia, for the reason that they are worked for the Government, while a majority of Siberian mines are worked by private corporations interested in getting as much out of the exiles as possible. But there is little doubt that the punishment of convicts on Sakha-

lein is greater than that inflicted at any penal establishment in Siberia proper.



PALACE OF PETRASSKY.

To escape from these mines is almost impossible, for though it would be comparatively easy to get outside the

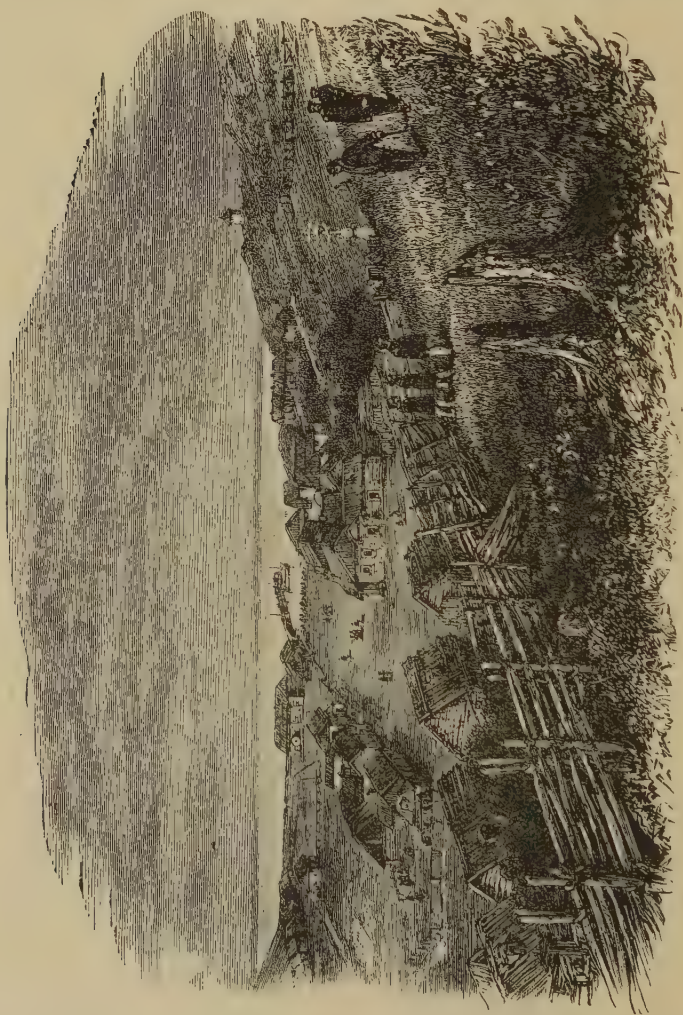
guards, there is nothing, except the wild animals of the country, upon which a fugitive might subsist while journeying the 200 miles he would have to go before reaching a point where he could hope to effect an embarkation for the mainland. None but the most desperate and daring would attempt to escape under such circumstances.

A few instances of such escapes are recorded, and one in particular was related to me, where two convicts overcame their guard and, armed with only a gun and an ax, made their way back to civilization. When almost overcome by starvation and cold, they were attacked by a huge Siberian bear which they succeeded in killing, and thus supplied themselves with food and nourishment.

Besides the dangers of starvation there is a reward of three roubles placed upon the head of every escaping convict, *dead or alive*. This barbaric outlawry is taken advantage of by the native Gilyaks, who prowl through every by-way in search of convicts, not with any intention of capturing them, but to shoot them down like wild beasts. This system of man-hunting is carried on so near the convict quarters that many unfortunate exiles, with no thought of attempting to escape, fall victims within a stone's throw of their barracks, having unknowingly come within range of the perfidious Gilyaks, who, upon applying for the reward, are sure to make out a big story of how they detected their victims in a desperate effort to escape. The proof required before payment is the severed head of the convict; thus, when the Gilyaks kill an exile on Sakhalein they cut off his head and carry it to the Governor; and inasmuch as the convicts are all branded it is easy to decide whether or not the applicant has made any mistake.

The Oraks, who number about 5,000, are hunters and

fishers; they live in cone-shaped houses made of thatch, which are set on poles about twelve feet above ground.



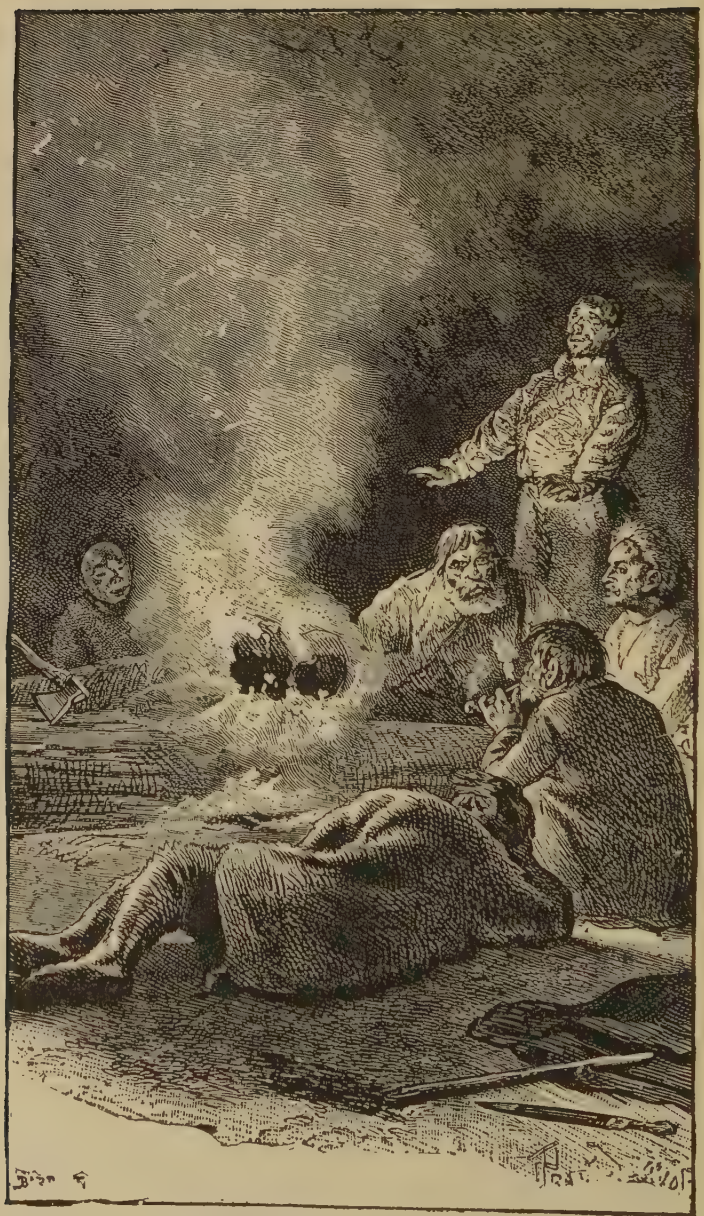
MILITARY POST OF DUI, SAKHALEIN.

Bears are plentiful on the island, and these the Oraks kill with spears, in a manner similar to that of the Gilyaks

of Siberia. Every Orak village has its sacred house, which serves as a repository for the bones of those animals killed by residents of the village. The interior of these sacred houses is filled with the bones of the bears except the skulls, which are placed on poles and set in the ground around the building. The Oraks are very superstitious, worshipping no particular deity, but practice many singular rites under the belief that they will bring them good. They regard no other charm, or amulet, so potential as that made of some portion of a bear's skull, while all the bones of that animal are supposed to possess magical powers, hence the pains taken by each village to preserve them.

I was anxious to find some one who had visited Nikolaefsk, and was familiar with that famous prison, so communicating this desire to Gunsollis, he assured me that it would not be difficult to find in Irkoutsk persons from any part of Siberia; we therefore went out together the following day, and before an hour had elapsed he found three different persons thoroughly familiar with Nikolaefsk, one of whom had been an exile there some years ago. Through the assistance of Gunsollis and Schleuter I obtained from these a large fund of information respecting that dreaded prison, which, in some respects, is said to be more feared than Kara.

Nikolaefsk is situated near the extreme eastern coast of Siberia, on a neck of the Gulf of Tartary and opposite the north-west coast of Sakhalein, or, more properly, at the mouth of the Amoor River. It contains a population of about 5,000, and has a few really excellent buildings. My informants dispelled the popular impression concerning the treatment of prisoners there, and assured me that the belief of cruelties practiced by Nikolaefsk officials arose out of the fact that it lies at the



CONVICTS CAMPING IN THE SNOW.

end of overland travel. Convicts who are sent by the transport route to Sakhalein here conclude their 4000 miles of foot journey, and the few who survive the terrors of such a march are so broken down by their loads of chains and unexampled miseries that they are quite ready to regard this last place on the journey as a very hades. This impression also extends to visitors, because in no other place can such emaciated, sorrowful looking people be seen, nearly one-half of whom are insane. It is not an unusual sight to witness many patients in the Nikolaefsk hospitals, the skin on whose wrists and ankles is worn entirely away by heavy chains, leaving exposed the raw and angry tendons.

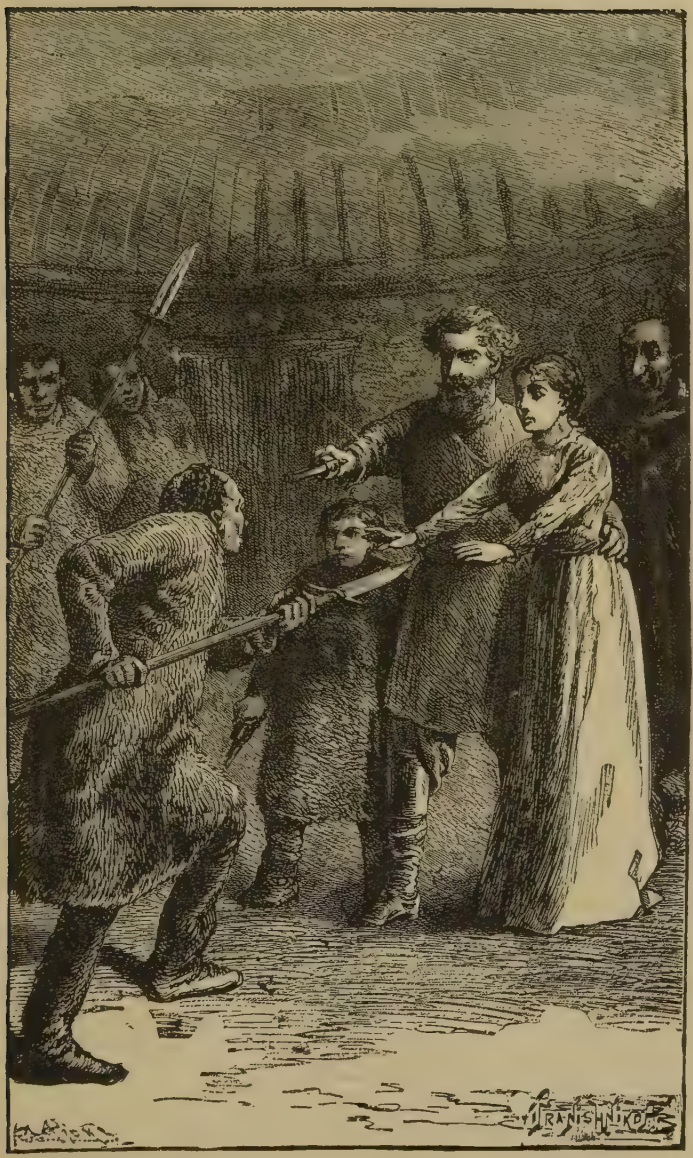
The climate about Nikolaefsk is dreadfully severe in winter, and on account of imperfect protection many convicts die there in the prisons of cold. Yet there is a humanity among the officers at these prisons found at few other penal stations in Siberia; the sufferings of convicts are attended to by a commission who derive, in addition to a salary from the Government, contributions from those who are charitably disposed, which latter is greater than the salaries. When the exiles are so far recovered as to be able to proceed to Sakhalein they are taken by a Russian man-of-war to port Dui and there distributed.

It very frequently happens that rather than go to Sakhalein the convicts will attempt to escape from Nikolaefsk, sometimes in squads and at others singly or in small parties. Formerly there was a reward offered in all of east Siberia, by governors of the several districts, for the head of every escaping convict, like that which still prevails in Sakhalein. During the continuance of this barbarous regulation several native tribes left off fishing and hunting wild animals, and took up the new occupa-

tion of hunting exiles. Such of those as could secure guns conducted a thriving business in summer time when the number of fugitives was greatest. These head hunters went on horseback, and around their waists they wore a broad belt to which they tied the heads of their victims. When a convict was found by these murderous heathen they showed him no mercy, but shot him down; if the wound did not prove fatal, but sufficient to bring

KILLING OF ESCAPING EXILES FOR THEIR CLOTHES.

the victim to the ground, the hunter rushed upon him with a large knife and cut off his head; strings were then made fast to the hair by which the severed head was tied to the hunter's belt. The body was also stripped of its clothing, which, though generally old and composed of nothing but reindeer skins, was valued so highly that since the withdrawal of money rewards by governors



387 COMBAT BETWEEN HEAD-HUNTERS AND ESCAPING CONVICTS.

these hunters continued shooting convicts merely for their clothes.

It is told that in September of 1856, a battalion of soldiers started from Nikolaefsk up the Amoor land route for Shilkinsk Zavod, but after proceeding less than a hundred versts they were overtaken by a snow-storm which so blinded them that progress was impossible, and to keep from freezing they were compelled to bundle together. But a more horrible death than that by freezing soon threatened, for having provided themselves with rations for only a few days their store of food failed them. Grim necessity was fought against until at last they were forced by hunger to draw lots to decide who should be sacrificed that their bodies might furnish food for the more fortunate. Nearly one-twentieth of the command was killed in this way and eaten by their comrades.

So sympathetic are the people of Siberia, and particularly do they so well know the suffering which every exile must undergo while fleeing for liberty, that it is their custom, just before retiring each night, to place some bread and salt on the outside window-sill, where it may be convenient to any one passing by; many a poor fugitive has thus been fed and his life preserved.

There is one other distributing point, or *etape* prison, on the Siberian coast, Vladivostock, which is a place of considerable commercial importance. Situated so near China, the town has attracted a large number of Mongolians, notwithstanding the fact that they are treated with great disrespect and on two occasions have been ordered out of the district, while China has vainly tried to prevent emigration of her subjects to Russian soil. In 1861 China ceded the sea-coast to Russia and at the same time prohibited her subjects from colonizing on Siberian soil with their wives. The rich Chinese

389—25 SIBERIAN PEASANTS CARING FOR AN AGED CONVICT.

therefore returned home, leaving the poor who were next to outlawed by the rigorous legal requirements which they were unable to obey; they naturally drifted into crime, and being soon after joined by Manchu brigands, known as Manzas, there succeeded a regular piratical organization which has not yet been entirely suppressed. These Manzas robbers are upon both land and water, killing on the highways and scuttling small crafts on the

A COREAN HOUSE IN VLADIVOSTOCK.

coastwaters, so that travelling through the Primorsk district is always very dangerous.

The Coreans are also in considerable numbers about Vladivostock, and because of their frugal, industrious habits they are despised and beaten by the Russ population. This treatment is due to the identical causes which have operated in San Francisco against the Chinese, for inasmuch as nearly one-half of the commodities used by the better classes in the Primorsk are of American production, the merchant and mechanic think that American prices and wages should obtain in Vladivostock. The

Coreans, however, are willing to work for very small wages and their bartering is conducted on small margins, hence the race prejudice. The Government of Corea has attempted to arrest emigration by making it a capital offence for any of its subjects to settle in a foreign country. This law had a dreadful enforcement in 1868, when 1,400 Coreans were run out of the Primorsk and upon returning to Corea they were summarily beheaded.

CHAPTER XXII.

The most interesting district in Siberia is about Yakoutsk, which is a city of 6,000 inhabitants, and the capital of the Yakoutsk Government. A large trade is carried on between Irkoutsk and Yakoutsk, so that I had no difficulty in finding scores of persons who had been long residents of the latter place, and would give me whatever information I desired concerning it. By Schleuter's assistance I interviewed the military Governor of Yakoutsk, who was on a visit to Irkoutsk, and to whom I was introduced by the Governor of the latter place. It was my good fortune also to find and talk with three men who had served short sentences of exile near Yakoutsk. From these several sources I gained a very satisfactory description of life in and about the city.

The government of Yakoutsk is the largest in Siberia, covering an area greater than that of all Europe, if we except Russia. The town itself, situated on the Lena River, in 65° north latitude, presents an odd blending of cosmopolite architecture, from the graceful styles adopted by Russian nobility to the summer *yourts* of the native Yakutes. Generally considered, however, there are few

modern appearances about the place; instead of using horses or reindeer for draught purposes, oxen are chosen, and these slow, plodding creatures are also used for riding; but a still more grotesque characteristic of the city is found in the fact that, discarding horses and the con-

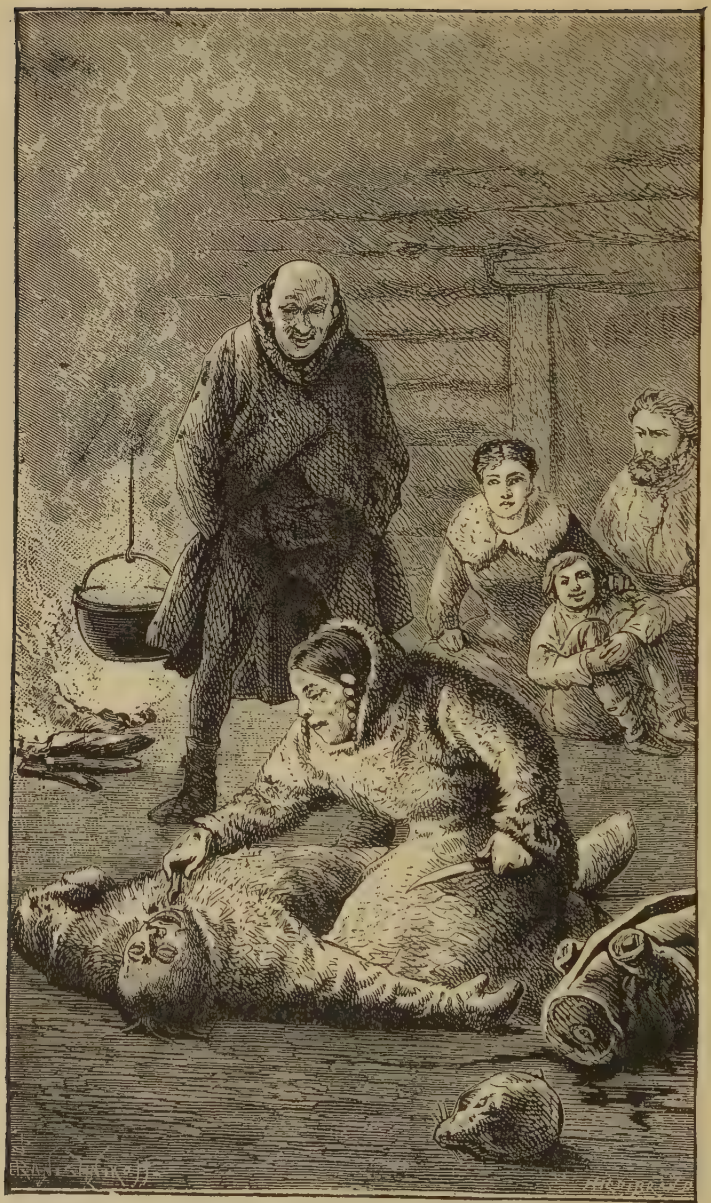
EXILES ON THE ISLAND OF SAKHALEIN.

ventional ways of other countries, the ladies of Yakoutsk ride on the backs of oxen—a-straddle. I cannot well imagine a more humorous sight than a Yakoutsk belle, dressed in the bright toggery peculiar to fashion, going out shopping in the city astride a mewling ox whose

shambling gait is marked by sinuous droolings, and whose whisking tail in summer time laps up little pools of sewage in the streets to distribute in a delicate spray over the fair rider.

Yakoutsk is said to be the coldest spot on earth; from December 1st to February 1st, the mean temperature being 58° Fah. below zero, while not infrequently it reaches 80° below. Extreme as this cold is, no particular discomfort is experienced; while the mercury is frozen market women may be seen standing before their wares with arms bared above the elbows, laughing and chatting as if the weather were delightful. In sledge travelling during such temperature, the driver sleeps in the clothing he wears all day, and will curl up in his vehicle at night, draw the fur hood of his great coat over his head and sleep under the shivering stars, and no doubt dream of violets and primroses bursting into life under a warm, exhilarating, spring time sun.

The Russian population of the Yakoutsk Government is confined chiefly to the Upper Lena, Yakoutsk and its vicinity. The Tunguse are also found on the eastern and western confines of the district, but are rarely met with in the interior. There is another race called the Yukaghirs, in the province, whose numbers are computed at about 2,000, but so wild is their nature that their ethnological peculiarities are but little known. They are only met with near the Arctic shores, between the Yana and Kolima rivers. They were once a very powerful tribe, so tradition says, and which statement is partly proved by the tumuli and burial places still to be found along the Lena river. These relics of former tribal power contain human bones, bows, arrows, spears, and an instrument similar to that occasionally found among the more ignorant Laplanders, which they call a "magic drum," but it



YUKAGHIR AND HIS WIFE "AT HOME."

resembles a pot more than a drum, being of considerable depth and closed at one end with reindeer skin.

The Yukaghirs live almost entirely on the reindeer they kill during spring and autumn. At these seasons a mosquito, not unlike the buffalo gnat of our Mississippi bottoms, and so numerous that at times they almost darken the sky, so torment the reindeer that they seek refuge in the rivers, where they remain until winter sets in. This habit is taken advantage of by the Yukaghirs, who post themselves under cover beside a frequented stream and await the reindeer, which come down from neighboring forests in immense herds and enter the water. When the animals have taken to the stream they are set upon by the hunters, who appear on both sides and with long spears slaughter great numbers.

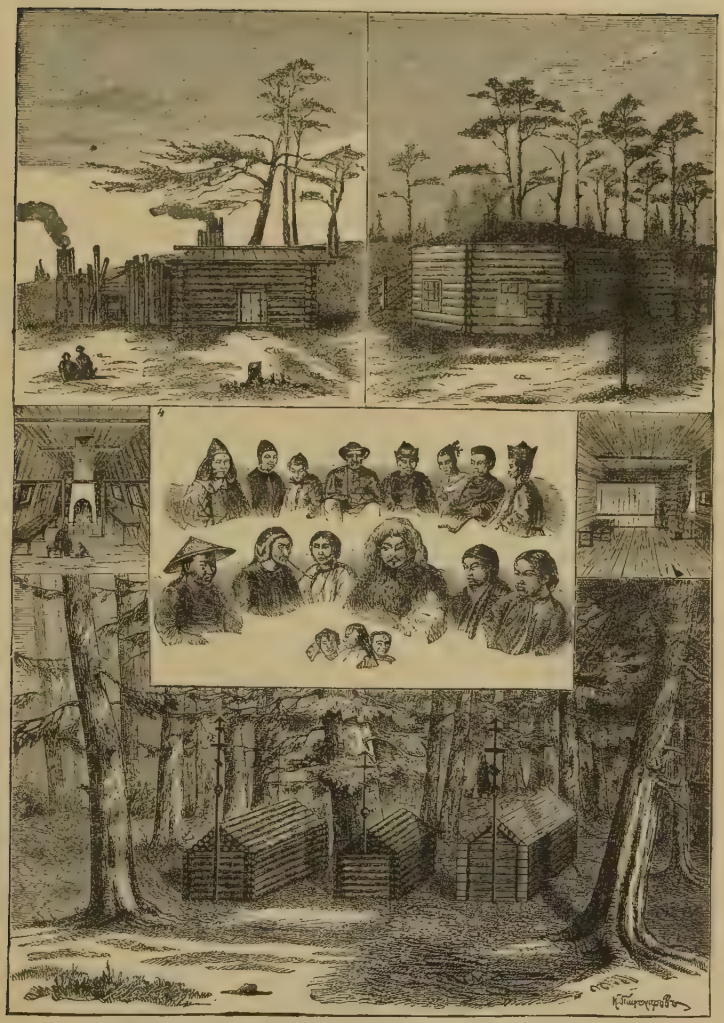
The Yukaghirs are inveterate smokers of a tobacco grown in the Ukraine, which they mix with small, half-decayed chips so as to make it go further; in smoking not a whiff is allowed to escape into the air, but all is inhaled and swallowed, producing an effect somewhat similar to a mild dose of opium. Tobacco is considered their first and greatest luxury. Women and children all smoke, the latter learning to do so as soon as they are able to toddle. Any funds remaining after the supply of tobacco has been laid in are devoted to the purchase of brandy. A Yukaghir, it is said, never intoxicates himself alone, but calls upon his family to share the drink, even children in arms being supplied with a portion.

In the center of the Yakutsk province, occupying the valley of the Lena, roam the Yakutes, some of whom are met as far off as Nikolaefsk. They are of middle height, and of a light copper color, with black hair, which the men cut close. The sharp lines of their faces express indecent and amiable gentleness rather than vigor and

passion. They bear a close resemblance to the North American Indians; their appearance is that of a people who have grown wild rather than of a thoroughly and originally rude race. Those who have been long settled among the Russians have perhaps become somewhat more polished than their wandering brethren. As a race they are good-tempered, orderly, hospitable, and capable of enduring great privation with patience; but in independence of character they contrast unfavorably with their Tunguse neighbors. Lay a finger in anger on one of the Tunguse, and nothing will induce him to forget the insult; whereas with the Yakutes, the more they are thrashed the better they work.*

The winter dwellings of the people have doors of raw hides, and log or wicker walls calked with cow-dung, and flanked with banks of earth to the height of the windows. The latter are made of sheets of ice, kept in their place from the outside by a slanting pole, the lower end of which is fixed in the ground. They are rendered air-tight by pouring on water, which quickly freezes round the edges; and the fact that it takes a long time to melt these blocks of ice thus fixed is highly suggestive of what the temperature must be, both without and within. The flat roof is covered with earth, and over the door, facing the east, the boards project, making a covered place in front, like the natives' houses in the Caucasus. Under the same roof are the winter shelters for the cows and for the people, the former being the larger.

* Strahlenberg divides them into 10 tribes, and Syboreen's Almanack for 1876 gives their number at 210,000. They belong to the great Turk family, and hence their Siberian locality is remarkable, because the Turks have ever been the people to displace others, whereas the Yakutes have been themselves displaced, and driven into this inhospitable climate, it is supposed, by the stronger Buriats.



VIEWS OF THE ABODES OF THE EXILES NEAR YAKOUTSK.

1. & 2 Summer Houses of the Exiles. 3. & 5. Interior views of same. 4. Types of the Rural Population. 6. Grave Yard.

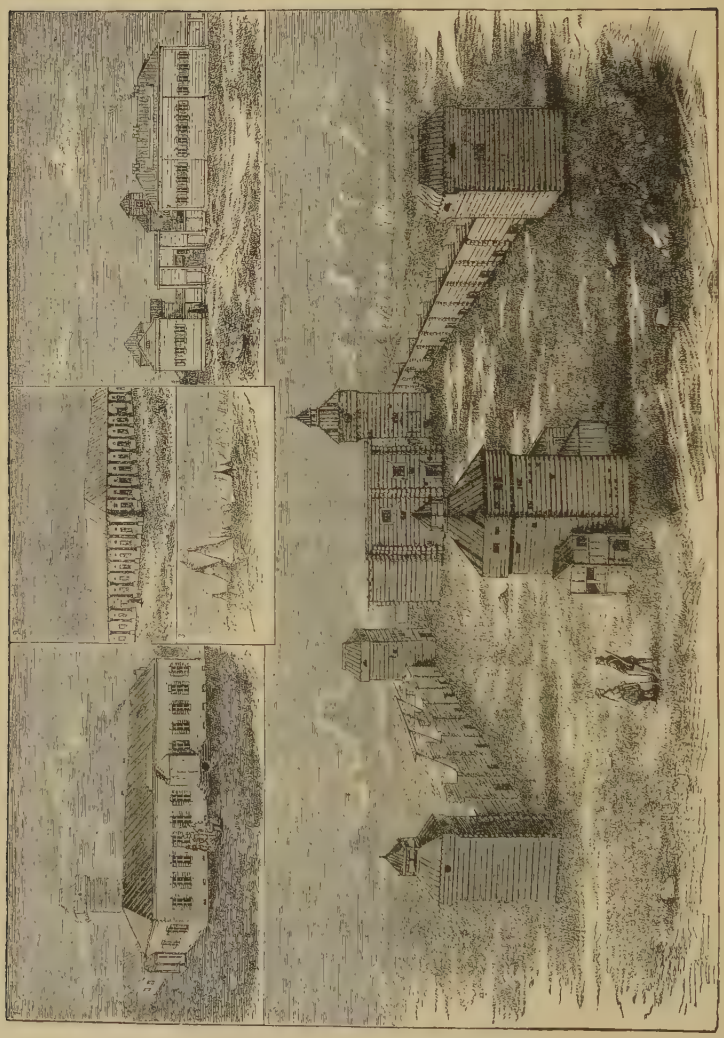
The fireplace consists of a wicker frame plastered over with clay, room being left for a man to pass between the fireplace and the wall. The hearth is made of beaten earth, and on it there is at all times a blazing fire, and logs of larch-wood throw up showers of sparks to the roof. Young calves, like children, are brought into the house to the fire, whilst their mothers cast a contented look through the open door at the back of the fireplace. Behind the fireplace, too, are the sleeping-places of the people, which in the poorer dwellings consists of only a continuation of the straw laid in the cow-house.

In the winter they have about five hours of daylight, which penetrates as best it can through the icy windows; and in the evening all the party sit round the fire on low stools, men and women smoking. The summer *yourts* of these people are formed of poles about 20 feet long, which are united at the top into a roomy cone, covered with pieces of bright yellow and perfectly flexible birch bark, which are not merely joined together, but are also handsomely worked along the seams with horsehair thread.

The houses are not overstocked with furniture, and the chief cooking utensil is a large iron pot. At the time of the invasion of the Russians, this article was deemed such a treasure that the price asked for a pot was as many sable-skins as would fill it. They use also in winter a bowl-shaped frame of wicker work, plastered with frozen cow-dung, in which they pound their porridge. With regard to their food, the Yakutes, if they have their choice, love to eat horse-flesh; and their adage says that to eat much meat, and grow fat upon it, is the highest destiny of man. They are the greatest gluttons. So far back as the days of Strahlenberg, it was said that four Yakutes would eat a horse. They rarely kill their oxen

for food; and at a wedding, the favorite dish served up by the bride to her future lord is a boiled horse's head, with horse-flesh sausages. When, however, horse-flesh or beef is wanting, they are not at all nice as to what they consume, for they eat the animals they take for fur, and woe to the unfortunate horse that becomes seriously injured in travel! It is killed and eaten then and there, the men taking off their girdles to give fair play to their stomachs, which swell after the fashion of a boa-constrictor. Thus earnestly do they aspire to their notion of the highest destiny of man! Milk is in general request among them, whether from cows or mares; and when they are in the neighborhood of the Russians, and can get flour, they do so; but far away in the forests they make a sort of porridge or bread, not exactly of sawdust, but of the under bark of the spruce, fir, and larch, which they cut in small pieces, or pound in a mortar, mixing it with milk, or with dried fish, or boiling it with glutinous tops of the young sprouts. In spring, when the sap is rising, they gather the bark harvest. They make also fermented beverages of milk; and in the height of summer, when the mares foal, an orgie is held, at which the men drain enormous bowls of this intoxicating liquor; whilst the women, denied the privilege of intoxication, solace themselves by getting as near to it as they can by smoking tobacco. The distillation of sour milk is also practiced, producing a coarse spirit known as *arigui*. They devour likewise enormous quantities of melted butter. This also can be prepared in such a way as to cause intoxication when taken in sufficient quantities.

The dress of the Yakutes resembles in its main features that of the other natives of Siberia, save, perhaps, that they are fonder of ornament. Both sexes riding a good deal on oxen and horses, a perpendicular slit is made



PENAL QUARTERS AT YAKOUTSK.

1. Governor's Residence. 2. Bazaar. 3. Lodges of Reindeer Skins. 4. Hospital. 5. Prison Quarters.

up the back from the bottom of the *synayakh*, or upper garment, in order to render the wearer comfortable in the saddle, and some of the women wear behind them a cushion or pad, to save them from the rough motion of the animals. During the milder part of the year a robe, made of very pliable leather, stained yellow, is worn, which indoors is frequently laid aside, and males and females sit by the fire, leaving the upper part of the body naked.

The boots made of this leather worn by the women fit tight to the leg, and have at the top a flap of black velvet with red cloth trimming, which can be turned down and exposed for show in fair weather, or turned up, bringing the boots to the thighs. On each foot are two broad leather thongs, five or six feet long, to wind around the leg. Water-proof boots are also made by the Yakutes, which they call *Torbosis;* these are cut from horse hide, steeped in sour milk, then smoked, and lastly rubbed well with grease and soot. They will wear indefinitely, and are so impervious to dampness that the wearer may tramp through water, mud and snow without inconvenience.

There is a large travel between Yakoutsk and Okhotsk, Kamtschatka, distance 800 miles, which is performed by the use of dogs, horses and reindeer. The latter, I was surprised to learn, are used for riding as much as for draught purposes. It is much more difficult to maintain one's seat on a reindeer than it is on a camel. To get on the animal's back, as one would mount a donkey, would probably cripple the deer for life. The saddle is therefore placed on its shoulder, close to the neck, and to mount, the rider, holding the bridle, stands at the right side of the animal, with his face turned forward. He then raises his left foot to the saddle, which he never

touches with his hands, and springing with the right leg, and aided also by a pole, which he holds in his right hand, he gains his seat. The native girls and women are as expert in this jumping as the men, and rarely want assistance in mounting.

The practiced reindeer riders acquire the habit of striking gently with the heel, alternately right and left, at every step, just behind the animal's shoulders. This is done, not for the purpose of stimulating the deer, but because the motion described is the surest means of maintaining equilibrium. The staff, too, with which the rider mounts is carried in his hand, and is used for maintaining an equipoise in riding; but any attempt of the rider, in the first critical moment, to support himself by resting the staff on the ground, is sure to end in his being unseated.

There is a very large settlement of convicts in the Yakoutsk Government, a greater portion of which is on the Lena river. These penal colonies are generally composed of men and women sent into exile without hard labor, in pursuance of an Imperial ukase that contemplated a settlement of the province. The district about Yakoutsk is wonderfully fertile, notwithstanding the fact that the ground is frozen to a depth of fifty feet, while during the summer it does not thaw out more than three feet below the surface. But even with these drawbacks to production, the soil is said to yield forty-fold of such vegetables as cabbage, potatoes, radishes, turnips and gherkins. Emperor Nicholas was very anxious to settle this section with an industrious population, and to accomplish this he promulgated an edict designed for the punishment of petty offenders, by which they were to be sent across Siberia and colonized at the most advantageous points in the Yakoutsk Government. It was also this

idea which prompted Alexander I. to encourage the establishment of *zemstas*, communal parliaments, to which he granted powers (heretofore described) to send into exile any one of the commune adjudged guilty of vagrancy, improvidence, drunkenness, or of any bad example. These measures have caused a more general settlement of the Yakoutsk Government than any other province in Siberia, the population being about 250,000.

EXILES' HOMES ON THE LENA—HOUSES OF DRIED DUNG.

There are penal quarters in the city of Yakoutsk that are fairly comfortable. They are made of hewn logs joined together by dovetailing and are lined with dry clay. These quarters, however, are only for a temporary lodgment of prisoners, and are therefore called *etape* prisons; they rarely contain more than one hundred convicts at one time, as those received are quickly distribut-

ed to various points in the Government where they are made to shift for themselves; though if a convict be accompanied by his family he is assisted for the first three years by the Government, which gives him a daily allowance of about ten cents. Along the Lena these convicts are chiefly engaged cutting wood, fishing and hunting. Their houses are made of baked cow-dung, because of the warmth this material secures, excluding cold much better than any other known substance.

But the most peculiar settlement in Siberia, indeed in all the world, is that of the *Scopsi*, a religious sect already mentioned, which is established in a forest near Yakoutsk. These people entertain such a singular belief that every other phase of fanaticism, whether Shamanism, Fakirism or any other absurd ism, appears transcendently consistent and wholesome in comparison. I have searched through encyclopediæs and questioned the most learned Russians in vain to find anything concerning the origin of their strange faith. Nevertheless the Scopsi have existed for hundreds of years, but the first decree of banishment against them was issued by Peter the Great, though in what year I could not learn. They found their faith upon the xix chapter, 12th verse, of St. Matthew, which reads as follows:

"For there are some eunuchs, which were so born from their mother's womb: and there are some eunuchs, which were made eunuchs of men: and there be eunuchs, which have made themselves eunuchs for the kingdom of heaven's sake. He that is able to receive it, let him receive it."

The interpretation placed upon this text by the Scopsi is so literal that if it obtained generally the earth would be without any human inhabitants in one generation. They also base their doctrine upon some of St. Paul's

letters, wherein he advises against marriage and inferentially predicts that the promised millennium can come only through a complete abnegation of sexual desires. I do not say that Paul intended to discourage the law of replenishment, but that the Scopsi so interpret his writings.

This peculiarly fanatical sect has not only existed in Russia, but, despite the most repressive measures under-

SCOPSI COLONY HOUSES NEAR YAKOUTSK.

taken by the Government for their suppression, they have increased until well informed persons in the Empire place their numbers at not less than 10,000. There is a law on the Russian statute books making it a crime, punishable by deportation, for any one to attend services held by the Scopsi, and all who are discovered to be members of, or in sympathy with the sect, are sent into exile

in the Yakoutsk district. Being denied all civil privileges the Scopsi nevertheless continue to propagate their doctrines by holding services in the thick forests, where they hope to escape detection from government spies.

While in St. Petersburg I met a young man who had been forced into an adoption of this singular faith, but who was a servant in an aristocratic family of the city. While I was interviewing Count Tolstoi this man came in to communicate some message from his master to the Prime Minister; his voice and appearance were so strange that my curiosity prompted me to enquire about him, when the Count informed me of the facts, this being the first time I had ever heard of such a sect. I therefore at once began to question the fellow, whom I took to be about twenty-seven years of age, and was rewarded by receiving from him a description of the Scopsi's practices.

Not only in retired country places, but also in cities do the Scopsi hold their services, but they are necessarily a secret denomination, who regard themselves as the especially anointed children of God; they have priests who travel about the country, providing their own sustenance and holding services only among such persons as they first obtain a satisfactory opinion from. These priests profess great familiarity with the Bible, and their arguments are addressed entirely to the emotional senses, and so effectively that a majority of those who attend are moved by such excitement that they gladly accept mutilation of themselves. They believe that mankind were conceived in sin, to purge which they must be born again into a state of purity; that the millennium cannot appear until the world is regenerated through purification, and that none can be pure in heart until the carnal impurities are removed: hence the Scopsi baptize into

what they call the new life of purity by castration. Men and women who unite with this sect must alike submit to mutilation, the operation on the latter consisting of an extraction of the oviaries through an incision made in the side. This worse than heathenish ceremonial, however, does not stop with a mutilation of those who willingly submit themselves; but, influenced by the belief that parents must provide means of salvation for their children, the little ones of both sexes are forcibly put under the priestly scalpel.

Practices which distinguish the Scopsi, revolting and foully unnatural as they are, have also obtained in other nations, and even to this day are not unusual in Turkey and Italy. It is a well known fact that the tenor singers in the Royal Italian Opera at Rome are castrates, made so by Government orders. In Turkey the custom is very common, parents frequently unsexing their own children to sell them afterward as servants in harems or places of monetary trust. In Russia it is also practiced upon children who are afterward raised with great care, for when grown they command large salaries in fiduciary positions. It is said that, however great the temptation offered may be, a castrate will never betray a trust; that in all history one was never known to steal, or absent himself from any duty. Male children who were subjected to this barbarous custom in earlier days were not mutilated by like means as now, but were much more infamously treated; all the privates were cut away, after which the child was buried to the waist in sand; this was to stop hemorrhage and prevent the exudation of serous fluid. It is said that nearly two-thirds of those thus treated died.

There is also a colony of political exiles in the Yakoutsk Government, located at a small town on the Lugi-

na river, called Villiski. Its population is a fugative one, for the reason that those sent there are at most only suspects, many of whom are called to Russia on pardons, or

SCENES IN VILLISKI.

1. Barracks. 2. & 3. Private Residence 4. General view of the Town. 5. Interior of a Private House. 6. City Hall and Residence of the Magistrate. 7. Prison.

sent to other districts; so that one month the town may

have a population of nearly two thousand, while the next month it may have less than five hundred. The climate at Villiski is dreadfully severe, even colder, some say, than at Yakoutsk, but fortunately the exiles there have little to do but fish in summer and keep themselves warm in winter.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE recent disastrous results attending the *Jeannette*, or DeLong, exploring expedition, which are now (as I write) being investigated before a commission at Washington, has brought the Lena River into such prominence before Americans that a partial history of the stream and the country which it drains has been considered applicable in this connection. The wrecking of DeLong and his party at the Lena delta, the loss of Lieutenant Chipp and his men, the dreadful march of Ninderman, Melville and Danenhower, and lastly, how the returning search party under Lieut. Gilder found the bodies of eight of that unfortunate expedition frozen under Siberian snows near the upper Lena, have been too recently told and generally read to need repetition here.

While at Irkoutsk I was very near, perhaps within a dozen miles of, the chief source of the Lena, and though never along the stream, I saw enough of Siberia to approximate an idea of the desolate country through which it passes. The history of this portion of Siberia, so far as records give us any data or description, starts with the conquests of the Buriats by Cossacks early in the 17th century. After 30 years of fierce warfare between these two races, the Cossacks made themselves masters of the district about Lake Baikal, and then pushed northward

along the Lena River until, in 1632, they reached the principal town of the Yakutes, where they built a fort and founded the city of Yakoutsk. After this they crossed the Aldan Mountains and, seven years later, reached the Sea of Okhotsk. For two centuries this was the route followed by those who would cross Siberia from the Urals to the Pacific, or *vice versa*. In the present day there are two other roads. All must go by the route from Tomsk to Irkoutsk, but from thence the Pacific can be reached either by crossing the Mongolian desert to Peking, or by traversing the Buriat steppe, and so descending the Amoor. The second of these routes is now the best, but not briefly to mention the old route would be to omit much interesting information concerning the Lena, with its native population and fossilized remains, as well as to miss the opportunity of hearing a little of some of the most daring and adventurous journeys of previous travellers.

I allude to the accounts of Strahlenberg, De Lesseps, Billings, Ledyard, Dobell, Gordon, Cochrane, Erman, Cotterill, and Hill.

Strahlenberg was a Swedish officer, who, at the beginning of the 18th century, was banished for 13 years to Siberia. He collected a vast amount of information concerning the country generally, and compiled polyglot tables of aboriginal languages, and amongst them that of the Yakutes inhabiting the valley of the Lena, of whose Pagan condition he gives many illustrations.

M. De Lesseps was French Consul and interpreter to Count de la Perouse, the well-known circumnavigator. De Lesseps entered the country at Kamchatka in 1788, and wrote an account of his travels across Siberia and Europe to Paris.

Captain Billings was an Englishman, who, after sailing

with the celebrated Captain Cook, was employed by the Empress Catharine II. to make discoveries on the north-east coast of Siberia, and among the islands in the Eastern Ocean stretching to the American coast. For this purpose he proceeded to north-east Siberia in 1785, sailed down the river Kolima, explored a portion of the country eastward, and then returned by way of Yakoutsk.

Another of Captain Cook's officers, John Ledyard, had

YAKUTE AND REINDEER.

the most romantic enthusiasm for adventure, perhaps, of any man of his time. He conceived the project of travelling across Europe, Asia, and America as far as possible on foot, and to this end he set out from London with about £50 only in his pockets. He reached Yakoutsk, where he met with Captain Billings, and with him was hoping to proceed to America, when, by order of the Russian Court, Ledyard was arrested on suspicion of being a French spy, and was taken off to Moscow.

Another journey across Northern Asia was made after the time of Billings by Peter Dobell, a counsellor of the

Court of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Russia. Dobell landed in Kamchatka in 1812, and from thence proceeded overland to Europe.

The most remarkable of these adventurers was an Englishman named John Dundas Cochrane, a captain in the Royal Navy, who, in 1820, proposed to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty that they should give their sanction and countenance to his undertaking alone a journey into the interior of Africa, with a view to ascertaining the course and determination of the river Niger. This they declined, whereupon he procured two years' leave of absence, and resolved to attempt "a walking tour" round the globe, as nearly as could be done by land, crossing from Northern Asia to America at Behring's Straits, his leading object being to trace the shores of the Polar Sea along America by land, as Captain Parry was at the time attempting it by sea. Accordingly he left London with his knapsack, crossed the Channel to Dieppe, and then set out. This gentleman was endowed with an unbounded reliance upon his own individual exertions, and his knowledge of man when unfettered by the frailties and misconduct of others. One man, he said, might go anywhere he chose, fearlessly and alone, and as safely trust himself in the hands of savages as among his own friends. His favorite dictum was that an individual might travel throughout the Russian empire, except in the *civilized* parts between the capitals, so long as his conduct was becoming, without necessaries failing him. He put his principle rather severely to the test, and it must be allowed that he did so with very general success, for he states that in travelling from Moscow to Irkoutsk (3,000 miles by his route) he spent less than a guinea. From Irkoutsk he descended the Lena to Yakoutsk, from whence, accompanied by a single Cossack, he penetrated

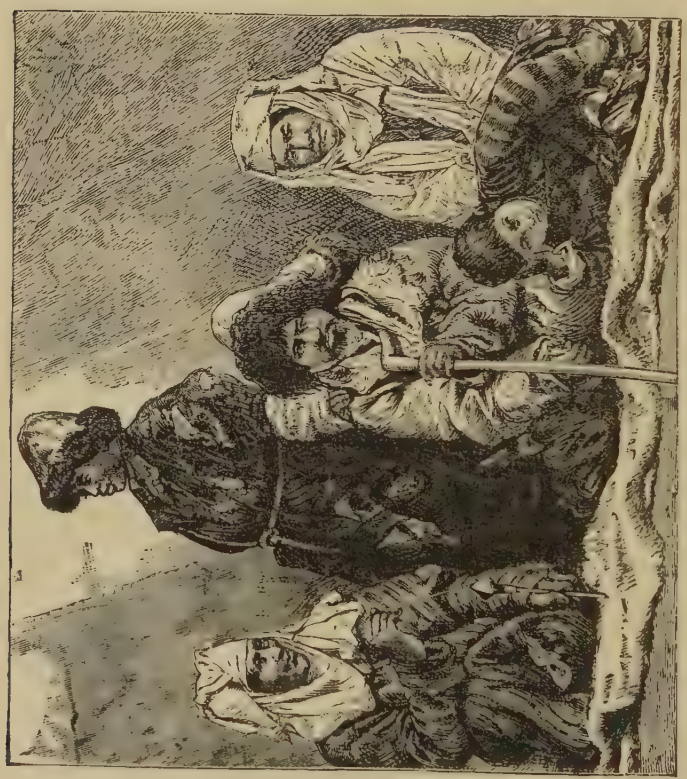
in a north-easterly direction almost to the shores of the Ice Sea at Nijni Kolimsk, where, having altered his plans, he turned back by a most difficult route to Okhotsk. From this place he sailed to Kamchatka, and married a native, whom he brought by sea back to Okhotsk, and then in winter crossed the Aldan mountains to Yakoutsk, whence the happy pair proceeded to Irkoutsk, and at length reached England. For enterprise and bravery this captain, I take it, easily bears off the palm from all Siberian travellers.

The writer who has added most, perhaps, to our scientific knowledge of the valley of the Lena is M. Adolph Erman, who crossed Siberia in 1828, in conjunction, though not in company, with Professor Hansteen, the first professor at the Magnetic Observatory at Christiania, in Norway, and famous for his researches in terrestrial magnetism. They both travelled for the purpose of making magnetic and other observations; but, on arriving at Irkoutsk, Professor Hansteen returned to Europe, whilst Erman continued down the Lena to Yakoutsk, crossed to the Sea of Okhotsk, and so continued round the world.

Later on, one more Englishman has reached the Pacific by the way of the Lena, namely, Mr. S. S. Hill, who did so in 1848, and it is not unlikely that he may, for some time, be the last of the intrepid travellers who have accomplished this feat, since the Amoor is now open to the Russians, and presents a far easier way of crossing the continent.

To follow the older route, the first portion had to be traversed by post vehicles from Irkoutsk, a distance of 160 miles in a north-easterly direction. The road crosses the water-parting of the Lena basin at or near the station Khogotskaya, which is about 90 geographical

miles from Irkoutsk. The traveller journeys through a hilly country, where there is abundant pasture, and where the land is to some extent cultivated, to the village of Kachugskoe, situated on the banks of the Lena.



KIRGHIZ OF NORTHERN SIBERIA.

Here various sorts of merchandise are embarked in large flat-bottomed boats, which are floated down the river. These goods are exchanged with the natives for furs, the boats at the end of the journey being broken up in districts where timber is scarce, and the furs brought back

in smaller craft. It was in one of these flat-bottomed boats that Mr. Hill descended the stream, in company with a Russian merchant, accomplishing the journey to Yakoutsk in twenty-one days, with no worse mishaps by water than occasionally being driven on sand or mud banks, or into a forest of trees, all but submerged by the height of the spring floods.

Captain Cochrane chose a more independent course. Being furnished with a Cossack, he drove from Irkoutsk to the Lena, and, having procured an open canoe and two men, paddled down the stream. Proceeding day and night, they usually made from 100 to 120 miles a day, finding hospitable villages at intervals of from fifteen to eighteen miles, as far as Kirensk, and so arrived on the eighth day at Vitimsk. It was now late in the autumn, and the ice began to come down the river, which sometimes compelled the natives to strip, and, up to their waists in water, to track the boat, and this with the thermometer below freezing-point. At length the captain, in consequence of the difficulties of boating, was requested at one of the villages to proceed on horseback, which he did, and, being unable at the next station to get either horses or boat, he had to shoulder his knapsack and walk; and so, by means of walking, riding, and paddling, he reached Olekminsk. From thence to Yakoutsk is about 400 miles, which, excepting the two last stages, the captain completed in a canoe, arriving on the 6th of October. The weather was cold, snow was falling, and on approaching Yakoutsk the canoe was caught in the ice, so that he was compelled to make the remainder of his journey on foot.

The descent of the Upper Lena to Yakoutsk by water was undertaken by Mr. Hill in spring, and by Captain

Cochrane in autumn, but Mr. Erman accomplished it on the ice in winter, by a twenty days' sledge journey of nearly 1,900 miles. As he passed along he observed, first in the village of Petrovsk, several of the women largely affected with goitre, and learned with surprise that this malady, which in Europe characterises the valleys of the Alps, is frequent on the Lena. As he proceeded he found goitre in men also, and asking an exile at Turutsk, who appeared the only healthy person in the place, how he had protected himself from goitre, was told that adults arriving from Europe were never attacked by the disease, but that the goitre was born with children of the district, and grew up with them. Medical men in Switzerland say that goitre proceeds from deposits in chemical combination, washed down by mountain streams that supply the inhabitants of the neighborhood with drinking water, and that it attacks children on account of their mucous membranes being very tender and easily distended. Mr. Erman inquired carefully, as he went on, respecting the prevalency of goitre, and having made barometrical and other observations along the way, he came at length to the conclusion that the disease was traceable, in part, to the formation and altitude of various places along the valley of the river, where the air, being confined, is, in summer, heated to an extraordinary degree, and loaded with moisture.

With regard to the stream of the Upper Lena, its headwaters have their sources spread out for 200 geographical miles along the counter slopes of the hills that form the western bank of Lake Baikal, and the main stream rises within seven miles of the lake.

At Kachugskoe, about 60 geographical miles from the Baikal, and not less than 75 geographical miles in a

straight line from its source, the Lena measures about the width of East River, opposite New York. The water, deep and clear, has in spring a very rapid current, though Captain Cochrane speaks of the rate lower down, in autumn, as only 1½ or 2 knots per hour. The next station after Kachugskoe is Vercholensk, a town of 1,000 inhabitants, the first of that size on the north-east of Irkoutsk, and is the chief town of the *uyezd* (district). After flowing 500 miles further through a hilly country, with high banks always on one and sometimes on both sides, on which are 35 post-stations and more villages, the river passes Kirensk, which again is the chief town of an uyezd, and has a population of 800. Here cultivation practically ceases, except for vegetables. At this point, too, the river receives on its right the Kirenga, which has run nearly as long a course as the Lena. The stream thus enlarged now flows on for 300 miles more to Vitimsk, where it is joined by its second great tributary, the Vitim, from the mountains east of Lake Baikal. Another stretch of 460 miles, through a country still hilly, but with villages less frequent, brings the traveller to Olekminsk, the capital of another uyezd, a town of 500 inhabitants; there the Lena receives from the south the Olekma, which rises near the Amoor river. It then continues for 400 miles through a sparsely-populated district, till it reaches Yakoutsk, where it is 4 miles wide in summer, and 2½ in winter, the river being usually frozen about the 1st of October, and not free from ice till about May 25th.

Hitherto the course of the river has been to the north-east, but at Yakoutsk the stream makes a bend and runs due north, receiving on its right, 100 miles below Yakoutsk, one of its largest tributaries, the Aldan, which rises in the Stanovoi range bordering on the Sea of Okh-

otsk. Yakoutsk is only 270 feet above the sea, and the current of the river henceforth is sluggish. About 50 miles further the Lena receives its largest tributary from the left, the Vilui, and then proceeds majestically through a flat country with an enormous body of water to the Arctic Ocean, into which it enters among a delta of islands formed of the *debris* brought down by the river.

In the region of the Lower Lena, and to the westward, have been found the remains of a huge rhinoceros, and an elephant larger than any now existing — the *elephas primigenius*, popularly called the mammoth. It is so named from the Russian *mamont*, or Tartar *mamma* (the earth), because the Yakutes believed that this animal worked its way in the earth like a mole; and a Chinese story represents the *mamentova* as a rat of the size of an elephant which always burrowed underground, and died on coming in contact with the outer air. The tusks of the mammoth are remarkable for exhibiting a double curve, first inwards, then outwards, and then inwards again; several able naturalists are of the opinion that the so-called mammoth is of the same species as the Indian elephant, only much altered by the change of climatic conditions. The Samoyeds say that the mammoth still exists wandering upon the shores of the Frozen Ocean, and subsisting on dead bodies thrown up by the surf. As for the rhinoceros, they say it was a gigantic bird, and the horns which the ivory-merchants purchase were its talons. Their legends tell of fearful combats between their ancestors and this enormous winged animal.

A trade in mammoth ivory has been carried on for hundreds of years between the tribes of Northern Asia and the Chinese; but it was a long time before European naturalists took a marked interest in the evidence of an

extinct order of animals which these remains undeniably recorded. The Siberian mammoth agrees exactly with the specimens unearthed in various parts of England, especially at Ilford in the valley of the Thames, near London, on the coast of Norfolk; but whereas on European soil there remain but fragments of the skeleton, there have been found in Siberia bones of the rhinoceros and mammoth covered with pieces of flesh and skin. These discoveries date back more than a century.

In December, 1771, a party of Yakutes hunting on the Vilui, near its junction with the Lower Lena, discovered an unknown animal half-buried in the sand, but still retaining its flesh, covered with a thick skin. The carcass was too much decomposed to allow of more than the head and two feet being forwarded to Irkoutsk; but they were seen by the great traveller and naturalist, Peter Simon Pallas, who pronounced the animal a rhinoceros, not particularly large of its kind, which might perchance have been born in Central Asia.

In the year 1799 a bank of frozen earth near the mouth of the Lena broke away, and revealed to a Tunguse, named Schumachoff, the body of a mammoth. Hair, skin, flesh and all had been preserved by the frost; and seven years later Mr. Adams, of the Petersburg Academy, hearing of the discovery at Yakoutsk, visited the spot. He found, however, that the greater part of the flesh had been eaten by wild animals and the dogs of the natives, though the eyes and brains remained. The entire carcass measured 9 feet 4 inches high, and 16 feet 4 inches from the point of the nose to the end of the tail, without including the tusks, which were 9 feet 6 inches in length if measured along the curves. The two tusks weighed 360 lbs., and the head and tusks together 414 lbs. The skin was of such extraordinary weight that ten persons

found great difficulty in carrying it. About 40 lbs. of hair, too, were collected, though much more of this was trodden into the sand by the feet of bears which had eaten the flesh. This skeleton is now in the Museum of the Academy at Petersburg, where I examined it during my visit to the city in October, 1882.

Again, in 1843, M. Middendorf found a mammoth on the Taz, between the Obi and the Yenesei, with some of the flesh in so perfect a condition that it was found possible to remove the ball of the eye, which is preserved in the Museum at Moscow.

In 1865 the captain of a Yenesei steamer by chance learned that some natives had discovered the preserved remains of a mammoth in latitude 67°, about 100 versts west of the river. Intelligence was sent to Petersburg, and Dr. Schmidt was commissioned to go and examine into the matter. Accordingly he proceeded down the Yenesei to Turukhansk, and thence to the landing-place nearest the mammoth deposit, hoping to obtain the animal's stomach, and, from the character of the leaves within, infer the creature's *habitat*, since it is known that the beast lived upon vegetable food, but of what exact character no one has yet determined. Unfortunately the stomach was wanting.

In examining, under the microscope, fragments of vegetable food picked out of the grooves of the molar teeth of the Siberian rhinoceros at Irkoutsk, naturalists have recognized fibres of the pitch-pine, larch, birch, and willow, resembling those of trees of the same kind which still grow in Southern Siberia. This seems to confirm the opinion, expressed long ago, that the rhinoceros and other large pachyderms found in the alluvial soil of the north used to inhabit Middle Siberia, south of the extreme northern regions where their skeletons are now

found; but Mr. Knox, who travelled for some distance with Schmidt on his return journey, says that the doctor estimated that the animal had been frozen many thousands of years, and that his natural dwelling-place was in the north, at a period when perhaps the Arctic regions were warmer than they now are. Covered with long hair, it could certainly resist an Arctic climate; but how on the tundras of the north could the animal have found the foliage of tress necessary for its subsistence? Must we conclude that formerly the country was wooded, or that the mammoth did not live where its skeletons are now found, but further south, whence its carcase has been carried northward by rivers, and frozen into the soil? These are questions debated among geologists, and still awaiting solution.

The fact, however, remains, that mammoth ivory is still an important branch of native commerce, and all travellers bear witness to the quantities of fossil bones found throughout the frozen regions of Siberia. It has been suggested that the abundant supplies of ivory which were at the command of the ancient Greek sculptors came by way of the Black Sea from the Siberian deposits. So far back as the time of Captain Billings, Martin Sauer, his secretary, tells us of one of the Arctic islands near the Siberian mainland, that "it is a mixture of sand and ice, so that when the thaw sets in and its banks begin to fall, many mammoth bones are found, and that all the isle is formed of the bones of this extraordinary animal." This account is to some extent corroborated by Figuier, who tells us that New Siberia and the Isle Liakov are for the most part only an agglomeration of sand, ice, and elephants' teeth; and at every tempest the sea casts ashore new quantities of mammoths' tusks. Reclus speaks of an annual find of fifteen tons of mammoth ivory, repre-

senting about 200 mammoths; and, about 1840, Middendorf estimated the number of mammoths discovered up to that time at 20,000.

Each year, in early summer, fishermen's barques direct their course to the New Siberian group, to the "*isles of bones*;" and, during winter, caravans drawn by dogs take the same route, and return charged with tusks of the mammoth, each weighing from 150 pounds to 200 pounds. The fossil ivory thus obtained is imported into China and Europe, and is used for the same purposes as the ordinary ivory of the elephant and hippopotamus.

We cannot leave the Lower Lena and the neighboring shores of the Arctic Ocean without alluding to the wonderful sight those shores witnessed in 1878, for the first time in the history of the world. It was no less a sight than that of two steam vessels that had ploughed their way from Europe round Cape Cheliuskin. One of them was the *Vega*, in which was Professor Nordenskjold, whose intention had been to anchor off the mouth of the Lena, but a favorable wind and an open sea offered so splendid an opportunity of continuing his voyage that he did not neglect it. He sailed away, therefore, on the 28th of August, direct for Fadievskoi, one of the New Siberian islands, where he intended to remain some days, and to examine scientifically the remains of mammoths, rhinoceri, horses, aurochs, bisons, sheep, etc., with which these islands are said to be covered. The *Vega* made excellent progress, but though on the 30th, Liakov Island was reached, the professor was unable to land, owing to the rotten ice which surrounded it, and the danger to which the vessel would have been exposed in case of a storm in such shallow water.

After the *Vega* with Nordenskjold on board, had left its sister ship the *Lena*, the latter vessel, under the com-

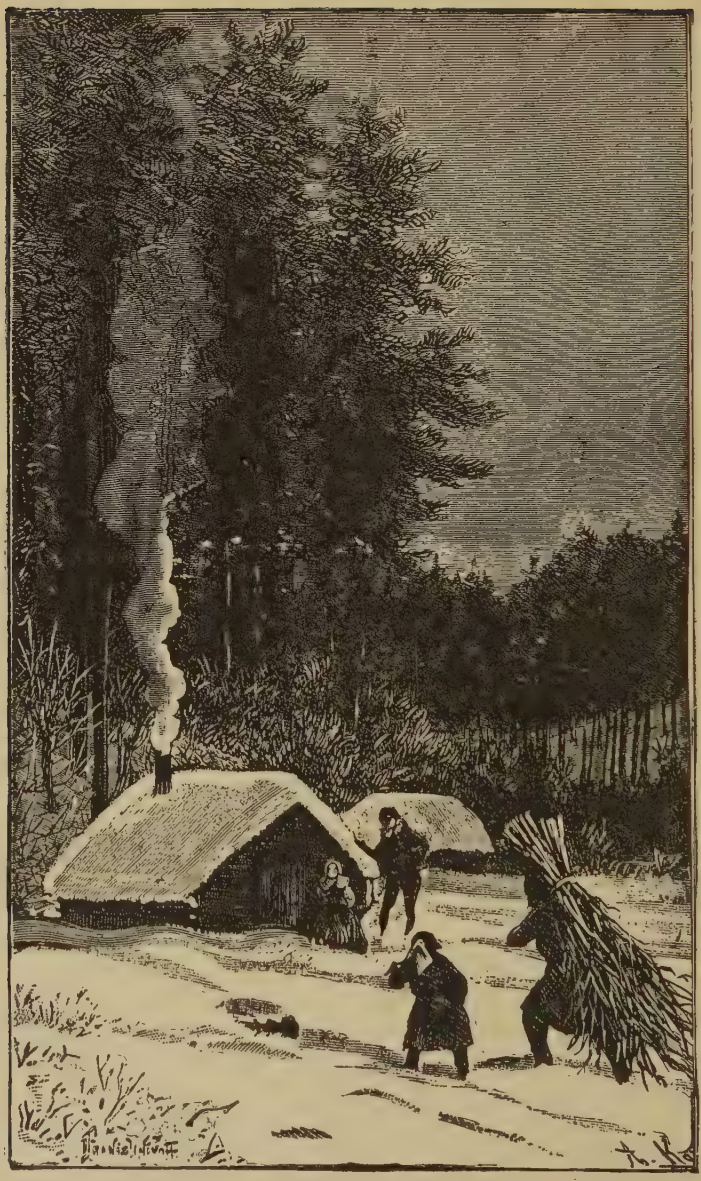
mand of Captain Johannesen, started to ascend the river of its own name. A pilot had been engaged to descend the river and await the arrival of the *Lena*, but as neither he nor his signals were visible, the captain, after considerable difficulty, from the shallowness of the water, made his way through the delta, and on the 7th of September reached the main stream, where the navigation was less difficult. Yakoutsk was reached on the 21st of September, dispatches were sent on to Irkoutsk, and from thence it was telegraphed to Europe that the rounding of Cape Cheliuskin and the navigation of the Lena by a steamer from the Atlantic had been accomplished.

Since this ascent of the Lena, no other vessel has attempted to follow by way of the Arctic mouth, but there are now several steam crafts navigating the stream between Yakoutsk and towns located further south on the river. About the delta, where the Jeannette survivors landed, there is still comparatively little known, though two native tribes, the Samoyeds and Ostjaks, hunt every year all along the coast and sledge their game on the frozen Lena from near its mouth to Yakoutsk. *

CHAPTER XXIV.

THERE are a number of mines worked by convict labor which I have not yet mentioned, among the more important being those at Kadaya, Malopatomski, Klitchka, Algatche, Akatuya, Vidinsky, Nertchinsky Zavod, Chita, Nertchinsk, and Petrovsky Zavod. Of these the

* For much of the information here given concerning the Lena, I am indebted to Mr. Lansdell's "Through Siberia."



A SIBERIAN HOME.

Nertchinsk mines deserve special mention, because of their magnitude and the reputation which they bear. Of this place of labor and torment the author of "The Russians of To-day" writes (p. 216): "The miners are supposed to be the worst offenders, and their punishment is tantamount to death by slow tortune; for it is certain to kill them in ten years, and ruins their health long before that time. If the convict have money or influential friends, he had better use the time between his sentence and transportation in buying a warrant which consigns him to the lighter kinds of labor above ground, otherwise he will inevitably be sent under earth, and never again see the sky until he is hauled up to die in an infirmary."

Again, a distinguished German writer, Robert Lemke, visited several mines in Siberia with an official legitimation from the Russian Government, among the mines so visited being those at Nertchinsk. Of the treatment accorded to convicts, in an article contributed to the *Contemporary Review*, September, 1879, Mr. Lemke says: "Entering a room (in the mine) of considerable extent, but which was scarcely a man's height, and which was dimly lit by an oil lamp, I asked, 'where are we?' 'In the sleeping room of the condemned! Formerly it was a gallery of the mine, now it serves as a shelter!' I shuddered. This subterranean sepulchre, lit by neither sun nor moon, was called a sleeping room. Alcove-like cells were hewn in the rock; here, on a couch of damp, half-rotten straw, covered with a sack-cloth, the unfortunate sufferers were to repose from the day's hard work. Over each cell a cramp iron was fixed, wherewith to lock up the prisoners like ferocious dogs. No door, no window anywhere.

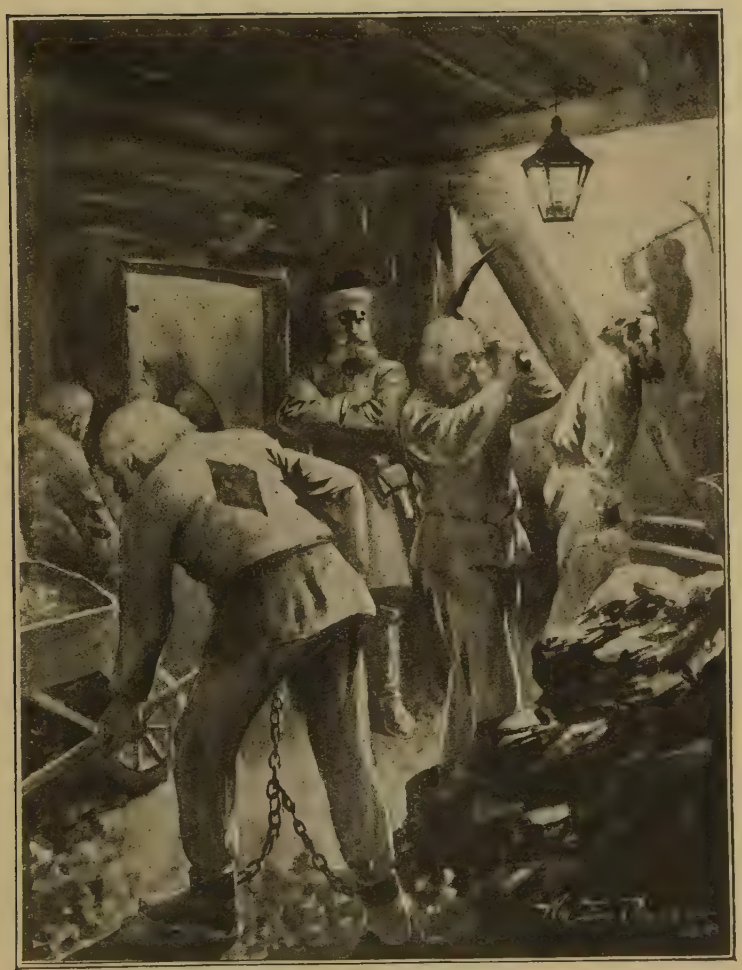
"Conducted through another passage, where a few lamps were placed, and whose end was also barred by an

iron gate, I came to a large vault, partly lit. This was the mine. A deafening noise of pickaxes and hammers grated on my ears. Here I saw hundreds of wretched figures, with shaggy beards, sickly faces, reddened eyes, clad in tatters—some of them barefoot, others in sandals, and all fettered with heavy foot chains. No songs, no whistling; now and then they shyly glanced at me and my guide."

Mr. Lemke also writes that in response to an inquiry which he made about the time allowed convicts to rest, the officer excitedly said: "Rest! Convicts must always labor. There is no rest for them; they are condemned to perpetual forced labor, and he who once enters the mine rarely leaves it."

I had read these statements before leaving America, and now, while in a position to test their accuracy, I determined to profit by the advantage. Mr. Gunsollis was still with me, and upon communicating my desire to him, he at once set about to assist me in finding some one who was familiar with the treatment of convicts at Nertchinsk. We had not long to search, for in a short time my friend was directed to a merchant whose *dvornik*—house porter—had been an exile at the noted mines for several years. This fellow, however, appeared very stupid, so that I did not like to trust his statement, from which dilemma I was fortunately relieved by his referring me to at least seven others in the city who had served terms of hard labor at Nertchinsk. By his directions I found six of these, three of whom were intelligent enough to comprehend my motives, while the other three were so suspicious of me that they could not be induced to talk.

From the three with whom I conversed freely much valuable information was obtained, which so thoroughly accords with all other descriptions of the place that I



SHACKLED CONVICTS AT WORK IN THE KARA MINES.

present it here, fully assured that it contains no misrepresentations. Of the three, one had served eight years at Nertchinsk for participation in the Polish riots of 1863; another had spent ten years at hard labor for an alleged connection with Nihilist rioters at Karkoff, which, however, he denied, and the other had served twelve years for burning Government property at Yarasloff. Each, of course, had a long story of justification, but as this might be expected from every convict, I did not rely on their defensive statements, lest they should be colored by excuses which had no existence in fact. But as to the treatment of themselves, and others under their observation at Nertchinsk, they were qualified to speak truthfully.

The mines at Nertchinsk are entered through an excavation made near the base of a mountain; they are nearly three hundred feet in depth, and, owing to the supposed existence of volcanic fires near the tunnels, are very warm. Into these tunnels, which ramify a large district, generally five hundred convicts are engaged mining silver; about one-fourth of this number are never permitted to appear above ground; that is, while all are doomed to hard labor, the portion referred to, having incurred the prejudice of those having them in charge, are subjected to a treatment not contemplated in their sentences. These unfortunates are not only weighted with heavy manacles, their arms, necks and ankles mutilated by the galling, rasping irons that are never removed, but their tasks are allotted greatly out of proportion to their ability, and yet they must perform them or be placed under such severe discipline as few can long endure.

It is no excuse if these men become ill or exhausted, they work nevertheless, and that too, with the same en-

ergy as though they were well and able-bodied. Those who trundle wheel-barrows are chained to their implement; those who wield the pick are generally chained to a rock beside their work, and so no one can leave for an instant the place where he is set to labor. In this mine there is a gallery which is used only for punishment; it is provided with rings made fast in the rock, and also with a large beam set at an angle of thirty-five or forty degrees, similar to that used in some of our penitentiaries, on which to punish convicts, and called the "Widow." When an offender becomes a subject for punishment he is taken into this gallery and either tied up by his wrists to the rings, or made to lie face downward on the beam, to which he is made fast by binding his wrists and ankles underneath. The scorpion is very frequently used upon those who are bound to the beam; from twenty-five to fifty lashes are given with this dreadful instrument, which latter number will, nine times out of ten, make a raving maniac of the victim. Those tied to the rings receive from one hundred to two hundred strokes of the knout, which lacerate the back in a manner no one can possibly describe; the use of both these instruments of punishment is very often attended with fatal results.

The shocking brutality of those who apply such, ostensibly, corrective means is further illustrated by their refusal to care for their victims after the unmerciful punishment is awarded. There is no compassionate treatment given the victims; taken from the gallery, with gashed and bleeding backs, their bodies quivering with agony, and legs so enfeebled that they frequently refuse support, the poor wretches are driven, or dragged, back to resume their tasks. Many of these sufferers return with disordered minds, crazed from pain, yet their idiotic ut-

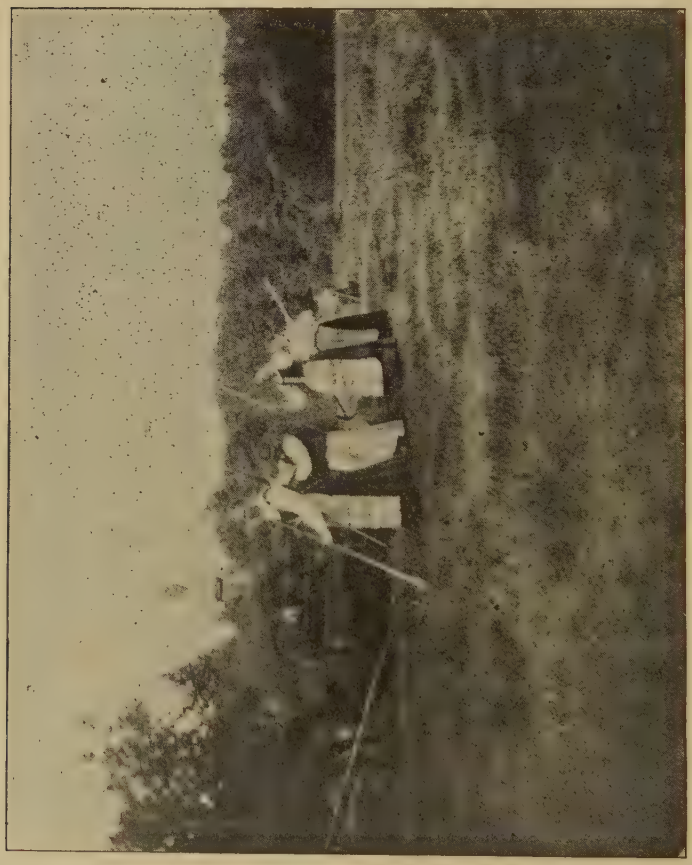
terances often cause them to be led again to the gallery for a double portion of punishment, or to be struck dead by the ferocious guard. For beds on which to lay their wounded bodies these poor convicts have only the ragged surface of the mine in which they work; nothing but rocks for couch, pillow or coverlet; nothing with which to bind their sores or alleviate their pains; enforced neglect causes a suppuration of the wounds, which, aggravated and poisoned by perspiration, grow more severe until fever succeeds, delirium is induced, and they fall victims indeed, but to secure at last relief and rest.

Constant labor in the mines, without for one moment being permitted to see the blessed light of day, shut down in the damp cavern to breathe heated metalic fumes, produces an effect upon the convict which must be seen to be understood. The first changes noticeable, strange enough, are found in the hair, which becomes coarse, harsh and straggling; next the features assume a pale cast, which afterwards change to a dull, ashen color; the eyes then lose all lustre, and begin to sink; the skin shrinks on the cheeks, and the flesh dries up until, after some years of labor, the whole frame seems to grow rickety, the muscles become atrophied and the voice is like a wheezy whisper; the lips are thin as paper, and the fingers are grown to double length by reason of the flesh drying up between them. Such specter-like figures seen through the flickering light of smoking torches, which throw dancing shadows on the trickling tunnels' sides, are wierdly grotesque, arousing in the observer a conception of those nether regions peopled by tormented souls and imps of iniquity; it is indeed a place of torment, established and maintained in that spirit which gave expression to the poetic, though none the less existent fact: "Man's inhumanity to man, makes countless thousands mourn."

Before concluding this most painful subject (for to me it has been melancholy in the extreme,) I must record the alleviating fact that *all* Siberian prisons are not conducted upon the inhuman principles which distinguish Kara, Nertchinsk and Dui; while nearly all the prisoners sent into exile by the Russian Government receive a more rigorous treatment, perhaps, than that practiced by other nations, yet there may be found, at occasional intervals, in the most desolate portions of Siberia, considerate, humane Governors whose ambition it is to lighten the burdens of exile life. It is gratifying to all the world to know that there is growing on Siberia's soil, from little seeds of kindness scattered therein by the few gracious dispensers of a temperate judgment sent to look over exiles, the tree of mercy that is spreading and exhaling such wholesome influence as will ultimately drive out the Draconian beasts of severity and relieve Russia from the stigma of cruelty which now shames her before the world.

Indeed, so much has been done already that we may anticipate an early adoption of a thoroughly merciful administration over the unfortunates sent into exile. Formerly, and not many years ago either, there were ecclesiastical courts in Siberia; self-constituted though they were, their decrees contained all the poisonous germs of that church policy which taught, during the middle ages, that it was proper to torture heretics to the end that their souls might be saved. These courts sat in judgment upon those accused of sacrilege, heresy, and witchcraft, which latter offence, strange enough, was more common than either of the others. As has always been the rule with every country that recognized witchcraft in its laws, women in Siberia were made to feel the special force of the punishment provided against those convicted of prac-

ticing the black art. It was quite sufficient for one convict to accuse a female of his class of collusion with the devil, or of weaving nets with which to catch spirits of



SKILLED RUSSIAN HAYMAKERS.

darkness to make them slaves to her will, to cause the one so accused to be brought before the ecclesiastical tribunal; these arrangements were in every respect like those which

were made about Salem, Massachusetts, in the last century, and conviction almost invariably resulted. The punishment provided for such cases consisted in branding, with a red hot iron, upon the forehead and abdomen, a figure of the cross. This was supposed to spiritualize the victim, and also to have a holy influence upon any offspring which she might thereafter bear. The application of the brand was accompanied with the most excruciating suffering, it being deemed essential to the potency of the counter-charm, to burn deeply into the flesh that the cross might ever appear most conspicuous.

But this barbaric custom is no longer practiced in any part of Siberia, while the treatment of female convicts generally is now fairly considerate, though not entirely humane. So do we have to record the fact, already mentioned, that a reward is no longer placed upon the heads of escaping convicts, though there is no penalty provided for the wilful murder of exiles, either in or out of prison. The spirit of the age is very slowly, but none the less certainly, extending towards Siberia, and let us hope it may completely possess that country ere long.

CHAPTER XXV.

HAVING pretty fully informed myself on the several subjects appertaining to Siberian life, on the 20th of September I took leave of my new acquaintances at Irkoutsk and prepared for the return journey, with Schlueter still acting as my guide. There was considerable snow falling and already on the ground, so adopting the most expeditious mode of travelling we engaged a post-*troika* and *yemstchik*, with which we started for Krasnoiarsk. Up to this

time I had carefully preserved the skin of the bear I killed while en-route for Yeniseisk, but it became so trou-

A PRIVATE INTERVIEW.

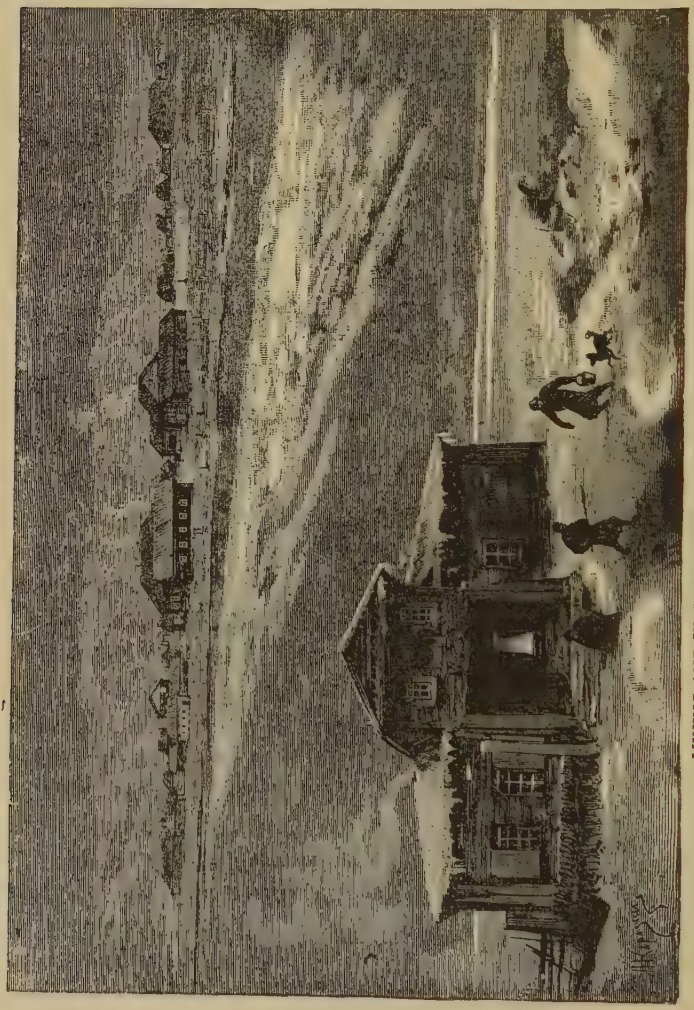
blesome that, after many wavering resolutions, I finally gave it to a mujik at whose house we stopped to purchase

milk. My tribulations over that skin were manifold. When I first perceived the bear it appeared to me of the most stupendous size and ferocity; when fortune favored me by directing the ball I fired to a fatal spot and the animal rolled over dead, it must be admitted that I entertained an opinion of myself which is simply and utterly beyond description; for several minutes I felt great anxiety to get back to America for the sole purpose of having my biography published. But when I began to skin the animal and thoroughly familiarize myself with its size and weapons for defence, somehow it commenced to dwindle like a candle lighted at both ends, or more properly like an object looked at through the large end of a spy-glass. Actually, that bear got so small before we finished the skinning that I felt sorry my rashness had destroyed an animal which I might as well have caught and made a pet of. But besides being very small, the skin refused to dry, while at every exposure it would freeze in the most uncomfortable shapes, and take up more room than all our other luggage. These several reasons I considered, at length, quite sufficient to make me part with the skin, but I was very sorry to see the mujik throw it aside with a look which plainly said: "Well, perhaps it will do for the cats to gnaw."

Upon reaching Nijni Udinsk we made a short stop and went out to the mines, which are nearly one mile from the town proper. But my visit was without results, as the chief officer was absent and none of his underlings would permit me to descend into the mines.

Starting again on the following day, we proceeded without interruption to Krasnoiarsk, and thence on to Tomsk without delay anywhere on the route. Everywhere there seemed to be plenty of snow except at Tomsk, where we found the ground so bare that I had to discard

the troika for a tumbril. I here decided to change my route and instead of returning to Russia by the same way



MINING AND WAY STATION ON THE ROUTE TO SIBERIA.

I had come, to cut straight across to Omsk and take the lower route which crosses the Urals at Orenburg. This

road I found, though not nearly so generally travelled as that by the way of Perm and Tobolsk, was through a more fertile country, and the roads were far better.

Omsk is a town of 3,000 people, with nothing to commend it above the smallest way-station, unless it be in the matter of churches, which are somewhat finer than those in Tieumen. I did not stop more than two hours in Omsk, being now anxious to conclude my investigations in Russia and reach home before winter should begin. As there were no post-stations upon which I could rely for conveyance between Omsk and Orenburg, I was reduced to the necessity of buying a tumbril and three horses, for which I paid something more than for those I purchased at Tomsk. It was also necessary for us to lay in a goodly store of provisions, as the distance we had now to travel was about one thousand miles before reaching the boundary of Russian civilization. This portion of my trip through Siberia impressed me more, perhaps, than anything I saw or heard on the convict route, for so great was the exposure induced from inclement weather that the effects I still keenly feel, while I was reduced in weight nearly thirty pounds.

Schleuter, besides being a good guide, was a splendid cook, and his services over the camp-fire had much to do in sustaining my, at times, flagging courage, for I can assure the reader that it is a rugged courage indeed that can resist the complaints of nature when incited by freezing cold, chilling rains, sickness, and the numberless annoyances which one might expect to meet on so long a journey, across a wilderness of unchangeable desolation, seven thousand miles from home.

At one point, near Prisnovsk, we discovered a herd of animals quite unlike any of the brute creation I had ever before seen; they were called Siberian Antelope and, as

I was informed, are quite numerous in the western part of Siberia. As it was drawing toward evening, I ordered Schleuter to stop and assist me in trying to kill one of the animals, as we were in need of fresh meat and, besides, I wanted the adventure. According to my instructions, the horses were unharnessed, save their bridles, and Schleuter mounting one while I rode another, bareback, we set out to *surround* the antelopes, which were not nearly so wild as the large game on our western plains. I rode away to the north some distance, where there was a small ravine in which myself and horse could remain quite out of sight of the game, while Schleuter watched my movements and at the proper time made a wide circuit and came up leeward of the antelope which did not take fright until he had approached within a few rods of them. Fortunately, but as we both anticipated, they broke directly for the ravine where I was stationed; they came by me in a gallop, not more than twenty steps away, and with a shaking, buck-ague aim I fired, once, twice, three times, the last shot alone taking effect, breaking the hind-leg of a large buck. Though disabled, the animal did not surrender, but on three legs it went cutting through the tall grass, while I hastily mounted and, waving my hat for Schleuter to come on, started in hot pursuit. A Siberian pony is great in endurance, though his speed is hardly above that of a mule's, but I was now thoroughly excited, and with beating, kicking and otherwise urging my horse I got enough speed out of him to keep not far behind the wounded buck. Thus we raced for nearly five miles before I could approach near enough to make a finishing shot. When the antelope was finally killed, we were much puzzled how to get it to our tumbril, as its weight was not less than four hundred pounds, I should judge. But our difficulties were overcome by dressing the game

SIBERIAN ANTELOPES.

and then equally dividing it, which, by the way, was a job of infinite tediousness and hard labor, since we had nothing but pocket-knives to work with; all our trouble was, however, wholly forgotten while feasting off the delicious steaks that night, such meat as I am sure can be found nowhere else in the world, unless Siberian Antelope are to be found in other countries.

We had no other exciting adventure between Omsk and Orenburg, which latter place we reached in fifteen days after leaving the former. The Ural mountains at Orenburg Pass are not even so high as the range about Perm. So far as my observations extended I was surprised to find that Orenburg had not been selected for the railroad passage instead of Perm, since nature certainly favors the southern route. I found in Orenburg a sleepy old town of pronounced Caucasian characteristics. Its population embraces many Tartars and Circassians, but all are a lazy, happy-go-lucky, to-morrow or next day kind of people, whom it is far better to read about in history than to mess with at table—in short, they stink.

My stay in Orenburg was very short, only long enough to sell my team and take a bath. I proceeded on for Nijni Novgorod by the regular post-route, which leads through Samara, where the Volga is crossed. Samara is noted for having the longest railroad bridge in the world, a structure erected by the company that began the construction of the southern railroad from Moscow through Siberia, as already mentioned.

From Samara I went on to Nijni, by steamer, and thence to Moscow, Schleuter still remaining with me, as I had need for an interpreter, having decided to spend two or more days in a serf village to acquaint myself with the customs peculiar to Russian peasantry. After stopping a few hours at Moscow I took the west-bound

RAILWAY BRIDGE ACROSS THE VOLGA AT SAMARA, THE LONGEST BRIDGE IN THE WORLD.

train, which runs across Russia 500 miles to Warsaw, for a large serf village located near the road, about forty miles from Moscow. I decided to visit this place because an American gentleman from Philadelphia, whom I met at the Hotel Billo in Moscow, had travelled through the village a few days before and assured me of its representative character. The station at which I stopped contained only one or two buildings, and being unable to engage any kind of conveyance Schleuter and I walked out to the Serf village, which was about two miles from the station.

There is nothing to which I can compare a serf settlement so well as to the negro log cabins still found on our Southern plantations. The buildings are nearly all alike, small, one or two room log huts having roofs of thatch, and are built along streets which seem to have been regularly laid out. There are generally two small, square windows in each house, and the floors are made of hewn pine logs, same as those used for the walls. Invariably, at a short distance from the village, is the nobleman's residence and a chapel for religious worship, not always near together, but never more than a half-mile apart. The nobleman's house always stands on an elevated position commanding a view of the village and estate. Things are very much changed since the serfs were emancipated, but there are yet visible traces of the relationship which once existed between the serfs and their master—nobleman. The glory, pomp and wealth of the nobility have departed ; no longer are the serfs called to their daily labor by the sounding horn, nor do they pay homage to or work for lordly masters who spend their years in riotous living. The mansion still stands a mute reminder of slavery days, but its once proud owner is now draining the dregs of poverty and spending his influence in fo-

menting rebellion against the Government that by a mandate deprived him of both wealth and position. But there appears to be little independence or prosperity among the serfs whose liberty came to them in a manner which they have never been quite able to understand. The communal estates still remain as in earlier days, the villages are intact, and but for the loitering indifference of the people we could hardly realize the change. On Southern plantations the gregarious log cabins which once sheltered negro bondsmen are now empty and fallen into decay, but though the abolition of serfdom was accomplished before the manumission of slaves in America, there is very little outwardly to show that the serf of [illegible] days is not still a serf.

went among the peasantry, who now hold the term "serf" in disdain, and was kindly treated by them. After once assuring themselves that the object of my visit was to learn something of their customs, they showed me every kindness and entertained me with a generous hospitality.

CHAPTER XXVI.

SUPERSTITION is nowhere so absurdly general and grotesque as among the Russian peasantry; but this is not surprising when we consider the fact that they receive no education whatever; a school house to them is only as a dream; they are nurtured in a church which recognizes modern day miracles, and are taught by priests who are the only monitors the poor classes know; that God and his saints spend their whole time looking for a fitting occasion to do something that may be interpreted as a mir-

acle. The cock that crows in the morning is reckoned as a mouth-piece of some old saint, and there are certain patriarchs in each village who take it upon themselves to render certain matutinal calls of the cock into decrees from heaven. Pigeons are looked upon as holy birds, for the lives of which the Russians are so regardful that a severe punishment is provided for any who would wantonly kill them; in consequence of this the whole country is fairly filled with pigeons, until they are an abominable nuisance. Every peasant must have an "icon" and keep a candle constantly burning before it; should the candle become exhausted in the night or be extinguished by accident, the entire household is at once seized with alarm; they immediately declare that a prowling spirit of darkness is in the house, to rid themselves of which they burn certain kinds of herbs and perform long series of strange ceremonials. The Russians do not, so far as I could learn, entertain any belief in faries or pixies, but they all have implicit confidence in good and evil spirits, which they believe are the angels of men and women who have died leaving something undone of such serious nature that they visit the earth to attend to the neglected matter. Before neither chapel nor holy image will a peasant pass without devoutly crossing himself. While in Moscow I saw an amusing illustration of this devotional characteristic: a priest came riding by in a carriage, carrying in his arms a picture of St. Nicholas (in his life he was called the iron-heeled despot, but after death his name was changed to St. Nicholas); the street was filled with people, and as they saw the (un)holy image they all dropped upon their knees and bent their heads to the sidewalk; as far as my eyes could follow the receding carriage I saw the people dropping down in long files like double columns of an army answering to a command. These people,

poor, ignorant and superstitious, are hardly less serfs now than before, because of the slavery they are still under to the church. In Russia there are more priests than dogs, and per consequence more degradation than any other prevailing characteristic. The priests are divided into two classes, viz., the white and black clergy; the former are privileged to do about as they please, but the latter, besides being prohibited from marrying, do not even receive the respectful regard of common people; they are nearly all drunkards, and so notoriously corrupt that in their preaching they exhort the people to "Do as we advise you, but not as we do." These travesties on the gospel, nevertheless, succeed in filching from the peasantry the means they can illy afford to spare. But under a suspicion that the highest reward hereafter attainable is given to those most liberal in their donations to the church, a belief which has been created by priestly mercenaries, the peasants divide their last copecks and go hungry that they may be called faithful. Churches, monasteries and chapels abound in rare profusion throughout Russia; nowhere in the world is there such a lavish display in ecclesiastical edifices and decorations; altars of solid silver, candelabras of pure gold, steeples and domes glittering with precious metals; priestly robes bedizened with diamonds, rubies, sapphires, and in short the whole church government covered inside and outside with a paraphernalia of extravagant, inestimable wealth. Now, who pays for all this pomp and more than Roman splendor? Why, none but the peasantry, those whose earnings are counted by copecks—half-cents—who go without schooling, without bread, without any comforts, and who bring up their children no better than themselves; these are they who contribute the means that make such a mockery of Godliness, justice, common-

sense, possible. Beside the icon in every peasant's home is placed a small box into which something is dropped every day, if but a copeck, for the benefit of the clergy, and whenever a miracle is wrought in a peasant's family, which, in their estimation, is very often, this church allowance not infrequently extends to the last piece of coin the family possesses.

In this barbaric superstition—the Russian Church—is found the primary cause of Nihilism. The oppressive burdens complained of do not arise wholly from despotic rulership; the Czar does not prevent the earth from bringing forth, nor does he withhold the hand of any husbandman from the plow; but the church has set aside one hundred holidays annually, on which no man who is faithful must labor; by this edict she destroys one-third the productiveness of the Empire and appropriates nearly all of the other two-thirds to herself, to keep up appearances. Poverty never considers the real cause that produces it, but angry at fate, she is controlled by prejudice against the more fortunate, and in these facts is patent reason why the political dissensions in Russia are so serious. The life of every nation is dependent upon the agricultural resources it yields, so that every nation must be poor whose pastoral people are poor; it is better to stop the spinning wheel than to arrest the plow, and more wisely economical is it to burden the commerce of manufacture than to encourage any scheme that looks toward a tax upon the farmer. Russia has not yet learned this important truth.

Agriculture in all Russia is still conducted upon primitive principles; I found that the peasants were indisposed to adopt any modern implement, but for what reason could not be explained. Their plows are not wholly unlike those used in China, consisting of a straight and narrow

RUSSIAN AGRICULTURE.

plow-share, without any mould-board, which runs into the earth not more than three inches and makes more of a trench than furrow; their plow horses work in shafts, and even here the *douga* is not discarded, but retained as a relic of ancient usage. But in the harvest field there is still less of modern farming seen, for the grain is cut with hand-sickles, behind which follow gleaners, as in the days of Ruth and Boaz. It is really a pretty sight to witness the harvest gathering; as the peasants live in communes, they work together upon a communistic principle; when the wheat has ripened—Russia raises comparatively little else—the village population, both men and women, turn out with sickles at their labor, which begins at break of day and continues until darkness. I have seen more than one hundred reapers strung out in a line gathering the grain of a single field, the men wearing trousers, of some coarse material, outside of which the shirt is worn; but the women, if not more expensively dressed, are certainly more gaudily decorated. They are very fond of bright colors, their hair being bound up with gay handkerchiefs, while their dresses are either of a bright red, blue or green; viewed at a distance, against a background of ripened grain and, as a whole, moving in eccentric undulations, the sight is exceedingly pleasing. When the wheat is gathered and ready for threshing, it is taken into sheds, which can hardly be called barns, and there the grain is beaten out with flails, as in olden times. Notwithstanding the crude manner in which the peasantry of Russia till their lands, yet Russia is the only competitor America has in an ambition to feed the world. Fortunately for us, what progress has been made in Russia has been in manufacture, to the almost utter neglect of agriculture, the result of which is the unwonted depression of all her energies, and the critical condition of

her finances. This may be accounted for by a consideration of the following facts, which should have special interest for Americans, because a removal of the causes may seriously embarrass our prosperity:

With immense tracts of sparsely populated but fertile lands, a great lack of native skilled labor, and undeveloped mineral resources, Russia is necessarily an agricultural country, and must seek material progress in driving the plough, and not in forging the ploughshare. Everything, however, seems to militate against the success of agriculture. The land, which is in the hands of the peasants in the purely Russian provinces, is being rapidly exhausted under unskilful and improvident husbandry, and where, under proper management, the complaint would be that there were not hands sufficient to work the soil, the actual cry is, on the contrary, that there is not land enough to feed the inhabitants. To the foreigner who knows the vast extent of the Russian Empire and the comparative paucity of its inhabitants, the idea of an earth-hunger in the dominions of the Czar appears simply absurd. Nevertheless the fact exists that the present deplorable condition of the peasantry in many of the provinces is gravely attributed to the smallness of the shares of land which fall to the lot of the various village families.

The subject has become so important to Russia that the Government has taken it into serious consideration, a commission being appointed to enquire into the question; and steps having been taken to facilitate the removal of large numbers of the peasants from the central provinces to the vacant and fertile lands in the east of the Empire. It is part of the theory of the largest and most influential class of Russian politicians that the welfare of the country depends upon the possession by each peasant of a plot of land sufficient under tillage to secure his main

tenance, and great alarm is therefore felt at what is considered the failure in this respect of the system introduced on the abolition of serfdom. It is perfectly clear that if, under the ukase of liberation, each peasant family received only sufficient land for its support, the smallest increase in the population must produce the greatest distress, unless the system of agriculture be so improved as to render the portions of land continually more productive. The Russian press, however, and the politicians who have specially occupied themselves with the land question, have for the most part paid but little attention to the consideration of the necessity for a general improvement in agriculture. Tables have been drawn up, and statistics have been prepared, proving beyond dispute that the portion of land possessed by each male peasant is smaller than was contemplated under the great Act of Emancipation, and that under present conditions the produce of this portion is insufficient to satisfy the requirements of its possessor. All this, however, seems to fail to suggest the desirability, and, indeed, necessity of seeking to increase the value of the produce of each acre of land. Great obstacles stand in the way of any rapid or serious improvement, but still much might be done. A first requirement is the introduction of capital for the improvement of stock, for works of irrigation, for the purchase of machinery, and for providing the means for tiding over bad seasons; but this urgently required capital is hard to get. One great obstacle in the unnatural diversion of capital to manufacturing industries, has been pointed out, but in addition to this, other circumstances combine to prevent those classes that would be most likely to come forward, from appearing as investors. The Jew capitalists who are to be found in every provincial town of the west, and many of whom as dealers in agricul-

tural produce, have intimate relations with the needy landowners and peasants, are prohibited by law from becoming owners, mortgagees, or managers of landed property, and this fact alone locks up from the land large sums which would otherwise almost certainly be employed in its development. After the Jews, the large landowners are the class from whom most might be expected. Their wealth and superior intelligence, if devoted to agriculture, would be almost invaluable; but since the emancipation of the serfs few of them reside on their estates or take any great interest in them. A barrier has arisen between them and those who were formerly their slaves, and if the mujik thinks that he can in any way struggle on independently, even high wages will seldom tempt him to work for his former master. The proprietor finds life in the provinces exceedingly dull and monotonous; his relations with the peasantry around him are generally strained, and the superior comfort of residence in one of the capitals or abroad is so great that he seldom resists the temptation to quit the provinces and hand over the management of his estates to an agent. If the agent were likely to be a man of intelligence and probity the damage would not be so great, but such men are hard to find, and as a rule under the administration of a deputy the property is neglected, and instead of an example of superior agriculture being given to the peasants, the indolence and too often the dishonesty of the agent lead to results on the estate of the large proprietors as bad as are produced on the village lands by the incapacity of the peasants. Thus do we observe the drawbacks to Russia's prosperity, and may feel assured that so long as they continue to exist the country will grow poorer until no one may foresee the end. I am frank to admit that the Russian Empire has infinitely more natural advantages

than the United States; she has the finest agricultural lands on earth, and more of it; she has more mineral wealth than any other nation; every climate may be found in the Empire, and where is there a country that has so many and such great rivers as Russia? The soil in what is known as the "black earth district," south-east Russia, is positively so rich that it will produce nothing but potatoes, or such other vegetables as will only grow in manure, and this district contains millions of acres. Siberia itself has enough arable lands, that if properly cultivated might be made to produce sustenance for the whole world; and yet, with all these advantages, Russia is behind every nation, and her population is only seven inhabitants per square mile. What a country for emigrants, if the laws were liberal!

CHAPTER XXVII.

After visiting nearly two days among the serfs, I dismissed Schleuter, who returned home to Tobolsk, while I went directly to St. Petersburg, and there renewed my relations with Count Tolstoi through a second letter of cordial introduction and recommendation, from Minister Hunt, as already published. My desire now was to inform myself of the social and religious life of the aristocratic and middle classes, as found at the Russian Capital.

Notwithstanding the fact that Moscow and St. Petersburg are both Muscovite Capitals, abounding with all the paraphernalia of Imperialism, regarded socially they are as distinct as Paris and Constantinople, having no single characteristic in common save in the possible matter of

church decoration. Moscow is a gem in the Asiatic signet still; though in strongly pronounced antagonism to Budhism and the Moslem creed, she nevertheless clings to such observances as distinguish those faiths, and did the spires of her churches wear crescents instead of crosses we could readily believe that Moscow was the Mussulman's holy city. But St. Petersburg has a highly polished veneering of European civilization, which is conspicuous everywhere outside her monasteries; on the streets may be seen, though at infrequent intervals, monks with round, band-box looking headpieces, from which a piece of black muslin is suspended behind; or, members of the white and black clergy dressed in black stoles, wearing hats tucked up at four quarters by strings, the former having short and the latter long, straggling hair; but these are about all the ecclesiastical sights to be seen on the streets in St. Petersburg, and even they are not common. Sunday, too, is not a day wholly devoted to religious observances, for I saw large squads of men busy at work repairing streets, which must have been done by municipal order, and there is also more or less business done at the small shops on Sunday; but in Moscow such sacrilegious employment would not be tolerated.

I attended services one Sunday at St. Isaac's Cathedral, in company with my interpreter, Kuntze, and was entertained in a much more agreeable manner than I had anticipated. This famous cathedral, though hardly so fine as the Grand Votive church in Moscow, is a marvel of architectural beauty and magnificence; its cupola is a mass of burnished gold, lifting up against the sky its wonderful hemisphere like a bright sun half set behind a mountain peak. It has four fronts, with the same number of main entrances, before each of which are

eight granite pillars sixty feet in height and seven feet through. The interior, however, is much more imposing, being composed of many beautiful rooms supported by pillars of malachite; the steps are made of porphyry; the walls are of lapis lazuli, the floors are of variegated marble, the inner dome is of malachite, and the gorgeous

ST. ISAAC'S CATHEDRAL.

interior is lighted by foliated windows of rare colors A feature of the decorations inside is the prestol forming the shrine, which is made of malachite and was a present from Prince Demidoff; the cost of this shrine was one million dollars, equal to the cost of the building's foundation

One peculiarity of all Greek churches is the absence of seats, and instrumental music; every one, whether prince or peasant, must stand up during the entire service, which generally lasts two hours. As I walked into the church it was between two files of beggars who haunted the entrance, and with suppliant mien addressed a petition to each person who passed them; they also held a little board in their hands on which they allowed to remain the copecks that were given them, as an incentive to others to contribute. When I reached the interior I found the congregation disposed in various naves, and generally in squads, the principal portion of the audience, however, being in the center nave, before which was the chancel and priest. My attention was attracted to bevies of suppliants whose devotions were being made before icons of Christ, Mary, Russian saints, and biblical patriarchs; each suppliant was provided with a pocket-full of candles, as every icon was surrounded with candelabras, some having more than fifty, which were supplied with new candles as soon as those burning were exhausted; the use of candles is so great that there are in Russia hundreds of very large factories which produce nothing but these sacrificial candles, and it is a most remunerative industry. Devotions made to these icons consist in the suppliant first addressing a short prayer before the image, while in a standing position; the suppliant then bows down and touches the floor three times with his forehead, still reciting prayers; this worship is repeated many times, and when concluded another prayer is offered, after which the sign of the cross is made three times, when the suppliant passes on to the center nave and participates in the regular services, which are chiefly choral. I saw many old men and women undergoing the preliminary service in a way which excited my compassion; in pros-

trating themselves I could hear their stiffened joints, inflexible from age, crack with each motion, and I could plainly see that the exertion consequent upon so repeatedly rising and kneeling was of a most taxing, if not exhausting, nature.

Russian choirs are famous the world over; no other people have such musical throats, and when animated by the religious feeling which so thoroughly pervades them they produce a harmony which I can best describe by calling it heavenly. I needed no interpreter to tell me of its beauty, or to inspire me with the soul-attuning melody which welled up until I became lost in its swells of rich grace-imparting, spiritualizing concord of delicious music. While entranced by this ecstacy of sweet sounds I was suddenly alarmed by a shriek which rose above the harmony, piercing and painful; looking in the direction from whence the excitement proceeded, I caught sight of a woman who was being borne upon the shoulders of two men through the audience toward a large image of the crucified Christ; instantly there occurred to me the idea of sacrificial rites, that this woman, screaming as if she were possessed of a thousand devils, was to do some propitiatory act for absolvment from a penalty which she conceived was about to be administered; these reflections were produced by the strange influences which surrounded me, but upon inquiry addressed to my guide for the cause, he informed me that the woman was a paralytic who, having received absolution, and the power of faith through a reception of the holy spirit, had begged to be carried to the feet of Christ, which, if she might touch, she expected to be cured of her affliction. I found that this was a very usual occurrence, there being few services held in the Cathedral that some incurable among the audience did not seek to touch the sacred image,

believing it would make them whole. I did not hear that any one had ever been thus miraculously cured, but then there is no limit to faith, and I did not expect to find reason prevailing to any extent among a people so exclusively religious as these.

I attended one other sacred service in St. Petersburg, which was even more interesting than that at St. Isaacs Cathedral, and which, I may add, impressed me more seriously. It was a *te deum* sung at the St. Alexander Nevskoi Monastery by fourteen monks and twelve neophytes. This ecclesiastical institution is renowned throughout the Empire, being to Russia what Westminster Abbey is to England. Under its marble floors repose hundreds of the most famous characters in Russian history, whose deeds are briefly recorded on the tablature above them. In a large yard about the Monastery lie buried many people once rich enough to purchase a resting place in the sacred enclosure, for it is a fact that none can find burial here except upon the payment of a certain sum, which generally amounts to $25,000; this is considered small enough price for a bed in so holy a place, which many think is but a step removed from heaven.

Some years ago there was a Lady Superior in charge of the Monastery who was also financial agent of the institution; she was a woman of extraordinary force of character and so popular among the aristocracy that she secured from time to time most princely bequests from rich people of the Empire; she was on very intimate terms with the royal family, particulary with the Empress of Alexander II., and possessed the confidence of everybody. Her charities became the wonder of all, for she built almost a score of institutions for the benefit of the poor, and established hospitals in many parts of

Russia. It is estimated that in her ambition to ameliorate the condition of the Russian poor she spent not less than $20,000,000. After a time it was hinted that all this wealth had not been derived from the sources she represented, but that she had appropriated the church revenues. An investigation followed, which was prompted by priests jealous of their own personal interests, which established the facts as charged. She was then placed on trial for sacrilege, in misappropriating church funds, and after one of the most exciting legal contests that ever took place in St. Petersburg, her guilt was established. The trial was attended not only by scores of the most famous people of the Empire, but also by the Emperor and Empress. It was clearly proved that, though the Lady Superior had used funds of which she was the trust agent, yet every dollar of it had been charitably employed; that even her own wants and needs were neglected to the end that she might use every copeck available for the betterment of those needing aid. Her sentence was confinement in prison for twenty years, but instead of this harsh judgment affixing any stigma to her name, hundreds of aristocratic women begged that they might be permitted to share her imprisonment. When assigned to a cell in the Bolshaya Sadovaya prison she found it a solid bower of perfume-laden flowers; she was daily visited by members of the Imperial family, and every possible attention was paid her by people of the highest rank. After two years of imprisonment, which was one continual ovation, Alexander II. gave her a pardon, and within two months after her liberation she was reinstated in the position of Lady Superior in the Monastery, where she is still serving, with enlarged jurisdiction, and honored as no other woman was ever honored in Russia.

I entered the monastery with my guide, who conducted me through long corridors, which seemed to be endless, past dark chambers which looked like charnel pits, and at times along narrow passages, until nearly a half-mile had been traversed, when we emerged into the main chapel. The *te deum* service begins at four o'clock P. M., and continues uninterruptedly for two hours; it was quarter past four when we arrived and the choir was already chanting their musical invocations; the first rich notes that fell upon my ear charmed every sense and thrilled me with melodious rapture. I walked forward in the great hall, which was deserted save by three women who were praying at the base of a gray pillar, until near the chancel, upon a raised dais on which stood the monks and neophytes, their backs toward the hall and with faces turned upon a large painting of Christ. There was about the whole scene something to inspire the soul; some overshadowing but impersonal presence; a strangeness that suggested infinity and spirituality; the shaking of hands and declaration of familiarity between the living and dead. The monks were habited in long, black surplices; on their heads they wore the black caps indicative of self-denial and retirement from the world, and their hair hung far down the back in consonance with the idea of a neglected body, but care for the soul.

I have heard with delight the famous professional singers of both continents, and measured their harmony by the fullest sense of the ear, but to none of them, Lind, Patti, Nilsson, could I compare the harvest of symphony as produced by the monks; indeed, one is as an elevation of man's feelings from the sordid cares of life to the bountiful love of domestic happiness and contentment; while the other is like lifting one from out a

life of disappointments for a transplanting into felicitous fields of paradise, where the very essence of existence is musical. I never before conceived the limits of vocal culture, I did not appreciate the mesmerism of a human voice, nor understand the magic of a song. There I stood, before that wonderful choir, so embalmed with melody, and intensified by a rapture so wonderful that I felt as one who might ascend upon wings of love to the portals of Hesperides and there bathe in a flood of joy which blessed souls find on the beautiful shores. I am not unconscious of the suspicion which many readers are liable to attach to so florid a description; who may, indeed, pronounce it sophomoric exaggeration, but my excuse for using such adjective expressions is the genuine, soul-entranced feeling I had while listening to the Monk choir, and which I have only indifferently described. I might rest under the imputation of supersensitiveness were it not for the fact that all who hear this famous choir are impressed with feelings identical with my own. Princely offers have been made the choir for their choral services in public, but these have all been refused with the pious remark, "We sing only for God and the dead." Some years ago a great tenor of the choir was ordered by Alexander II. to sing on a public occasion at the Royal Italian Opera in St. Petersburg. His appearance created such an intense excitement that the Emperor was glad to have him return to the monastery; so great was the rush of people to hear the tenor that many persons were trampled, while those who gained admission to the theatre manifested such delirious joy that they would hardly permit him to leave the stage; in addition to this rather annoying adulation, the church violently protested against his public appearance, pronouncing it a sacrilegious sacrifice,

and hurled dreadful anathemas at the Emperor for his order. This was the first and last time that any member of the Monastery choir has sung outside the chapel of their own sacred institution.

When the services were concluded, at six o'clock P. M., the monks withdrew into their cells and I was left to inspect the building. The chief object of interest inside the chapel is a silver casket containing the body of St. Alexander Nevskoi, who is the patron saint of Petersburg. This saint is a canonization of the Grand Duke Alexander, who was a member of the Rurik dynasty, but lived only a short time before the accession of the Romanoffs. He is reputed to have been a great warrior, and it is said of him that in a battle with the Swedes, fought on the very spot where the monastery now stands, he defeated his enemies with great loss and killed the Swedish commander with his own sword. The bones of this hero were originally buried near Kazan, but were brought to St. Petersburg and canonized by order of Peter the Great. Not long after this event some priests of Little Russia slipped into St. Petersburg and succeeded in stealing the canonized bones, which they removed to a spot not far from where they were first buried. Much distress was felt by Peter at this desecration, and it is said he fell to praying for direction how to proceed to recover the bones. His petition was answered by an angel who appeared to Peter in a cloud of fire and told him how the bones were taken away and where they were buried; it is told that the Emperor, accompanied by two of his royal suite, visited the spot described by the angel and, with his own hands, dug up the saint, boxed the bones and carried them back to St. Petersburg, determined that they should not be again disturbed Peter caused to be made an immense silver sarcophagus, into which he

placed the sacred remains, then closed down the lid, locked it and threw the key into the Neva River. This solid silver casket, or rather sarcophagus, is in a side chapel, to the right of the sacristy. It is square shaped, and at each corner is the figure of an angel (large as a grown person) in an attitude of mourning. The value of this piece of art and precious metals is $250,000.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

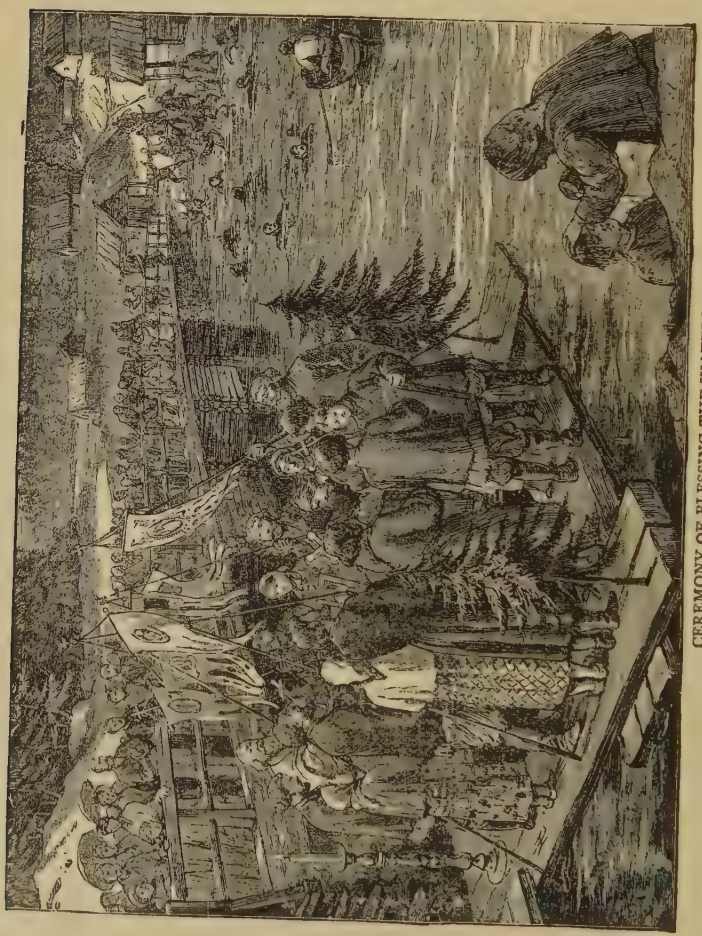
While I did not attend divine services in but two churches in St. Petersburg, yet I did not neglect to visit the Cathedral of St. Petersburg, generally called Cathedral Kazan, as it is dedicated to an imaginative deity, or rather to a canonized woman, who doubtless never existed, but who is supposed to have been named Kazan. This church is the finest perhaps in all Russia, always excepting, of course, the Grand Votive Church in Moscow. It is situated on the Nevskoi Prospekt, and is the most conspicuous building on that great thoroughfare. In shape it is that of a cross, its greatest length being 238 feet and its width 182 feet, the whole being modeled after St. Peter's at Rome, though in height the building does not measare above 250 feet, and the cost did not exceed $4,000,000. The most curious and interesting object connected with this cathedral is an image of "Lady Kazan," which stands near the altar. This image is supposed to have been made in the city of Kazan, in 1579. I say "supposed" because the Russian priesthood do not want to positively know anything, being mindful of the fact that fascination is much more likely to be excited by legend than by established history. The figure is known to have

been placed in the cathedral in 1821, where it has ever since remained, a very strong attraction, and as an investment it has no doubt paid the church enormously, for a devout peasant can hardly look upon it without being moved to make a contribution.

I have called this ideal representation of Lady Kazan a figure, or image, but it is neither painting nor image, being a medley of both. The Greek religion, as before mentioned, prohibits the use of images, but the prohibition is rather technical than literal. In reality the figure proper is a painting, but it is habilitated in regal attire and almost covered with precious jewels. There is one diamond in the crown valued at $100,000, and a sapphire which forms the center of the tiara is said to be worth $500,000; it was contributed by the Grand-Duchess Catharina Paulovna, who is now "supposed" to be getting value received in the court of last resort—heaven.

There is invested in churches, decorations and sacred images in St. Petersburg more than $200,000,000, a sum equal to nearly one-half the value of all other property in the municipality; yet I was surprised to learn that most of the money used in sustaining the churches is derived from the poorer classes; this statement appears almost incredible but it is none the less true; its apparent exaggeration is somewhat modified, however, by the fact that in Russia the priests receive very little more than is barely sufficient for their needs, which are few. Although Russia is, as a nation, intensely religious, her aristocracy incline to sacred matters with such indifference that they cannot be called religious, while there is not one among a hundred of her scientists or learned men who is not an agnostic. I was told that scarcely any of the upper classes attend divine service, and in the

homes of the nobility an icon is beginning to be a rarity. So we can readily understand why the burdens of church expenses have fallen upon the poorer people, whose loy-



CEREMONY OF BLESSING THE WATERS.

alty to the faith of their ancestors is unwavering, same as we find it in all countries. But as the poor in Russia are so much more numerous than the rich, and because

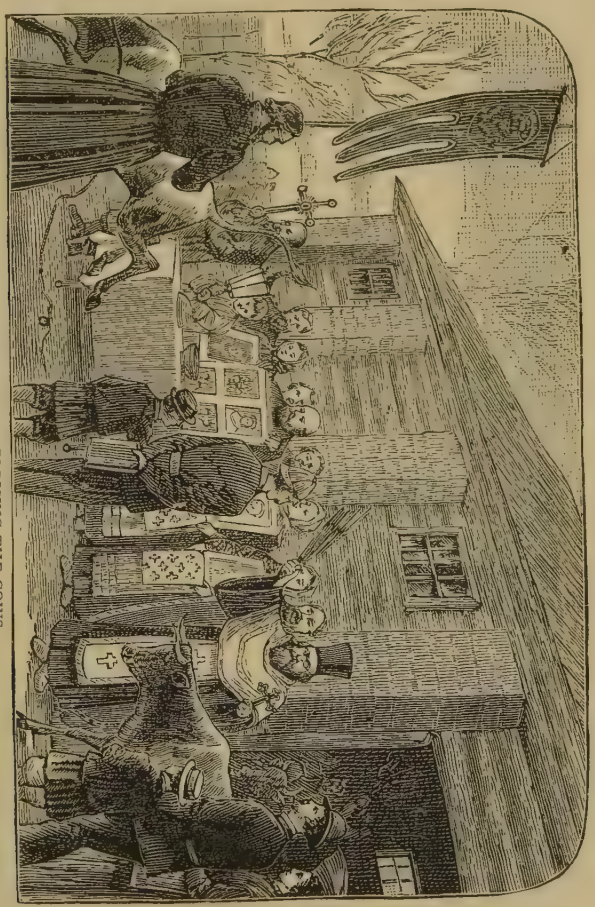
they compose the sinews of the government and are its sole dependence, their influence is recognized by the government in continuing its religious observances, and in providing such pomp as delights the simple votaries of the Greek Church.

It would require too much space to describe the many holidays set apart by Russian laws, but some of them are observed so generally, and with such display of ceremonial, that I must mention a few. The most distinguished day and festival occasion occurs on August first, which is called "First Spass," or Savior day. It is commemorative of the crossing of the Sea of Galilee by Christ and his disciples. The service of celebration begins with a *te deum* at church, which lasts about two hours; at its conclusion a procession is formed, composed of nearly all the common people in St. Petersburg, few persons of wealth or rank participating. At the head of this procession are six peasants, each bearing a sacred banner; immediately behind them are two more peasants, who carry between them a large painting of the Savior. Behind these are peasant girls bearing icons of the Madonna and disciples. After the girls comes the chief priest, who wears upon his head a golden cross and is clothed in rich vestments of the church. Behind him marches the long line of peasants, or all who desire to participate in the services. The procession thus formed marches to a bridge across the Neva River, which has been decorated for the occasion with trees, flowers and interlaced branches of evergreens. Upon reaching this bridge a short prayer is offered by the priest, who then signals a blessing of the waters, which is followed by those bearing banners, crosses and icons, dipping them into the river three times, which is supposed to impart a miraculous influence. Immediately upon this being done hundreds jump into the

stream, while other hundreds fill bottles, jugs and barrels with the precious water that is now believed to possess a magic power to heal any and every ailment of humanity; many invalids are carried down to the water and submerged, fully possessed of the belief that their afflictions will be cured, while those who are in sound bodily health bathe their heads to keep off disease. These waters, which must be taken on the day they are blessed if their potency be desired, are supposed to possess miraculous virtues for one year, and no amount of evidence could shake the faith of a peasant in this belief, although I could not find any peasant who knew of a cure having been effected by using the water.

The next most important holiday in Russia is St. George's Day, which occurs on the 23d of April, and is a celebration in honor of Russia's patron saint. So severe are the winters in northern Russia that it is customary to keep cows and sheep stabled from November first until St. George's Day, when they are turned out of doors, their release being made a chief part of the holiday ceremonials. On the morning of this day the peasants arrange tables, spread with white cloths, about the stables containing their domestic animals, upon which they place bread, water and eggs. Around these tables stand the peasants, male and female, each provided with an icon of some saint, and at the stable door stands a priest who bears a large banner having four portraits painted upon it and also a picture representing St. George killing the dragon. Beside him is a basin of water which he consecrates by dipping into it a small cross three times. After preaching a short sermon the priest opens the stable doors, the cows and sheep come out before him, and he sprinkles them with holy water, from the basin, with a little brush.

I do not remember of having ever heard of a custom among any people so singular, if not paganish, as that which prevails among the poorer classes in Russia, and known as Recollection Monday. Feasting among the



CEREMONY OF BLESSING THE COWS.

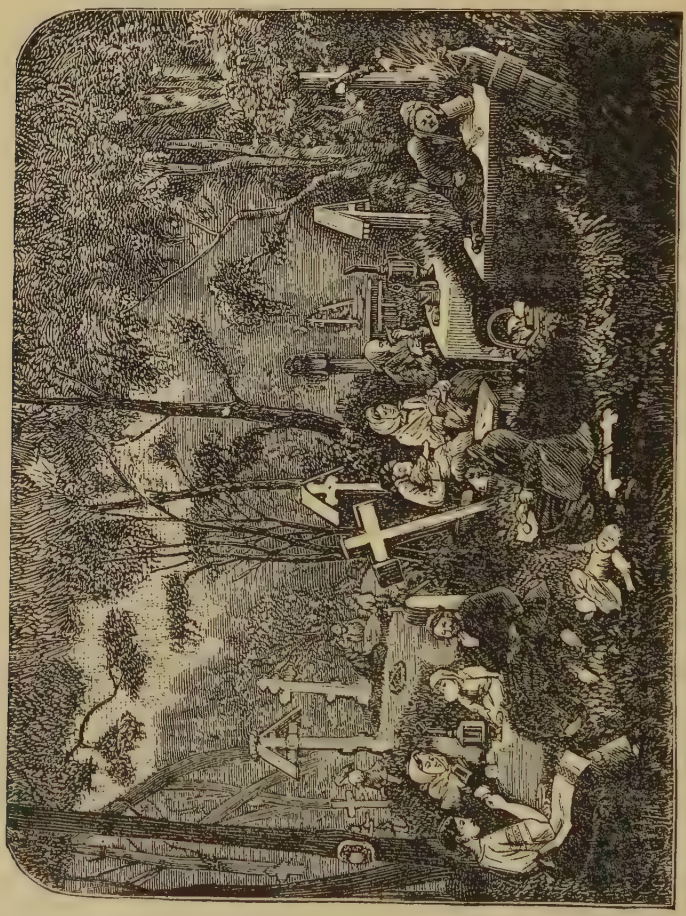
tombs, I am aware, was once a custom among the Jews, who did it as a mark of respect for their departed friends, as also do the lower classes of Irish hold "wakes," but

A RUSSIAN PEASANT VILLAGE.

just for what purpose they cannot themselves tell. But the custom, as now observed in Russia, is much more radical in character than either the Irish or ancient Jewish ceremonies. The celebration of Recollection Monday is begun by services of mass held in the various chapels, at the conclusion of which a large amount of food, consisting of Easter eggs, salt, cake and fruit, which is brought into the chapels in baskets, is taken forward to the priest for his blessing. Wine and vodka are not a necessary part of the provisions used at the ceremonies, but considerable quantities are nevertheless provided. After the chapel services are finished processions are formed, headed by priests, which march to the cemeteries and there begin lamentations for the dead. But this manifestation of grief very soon changes into a wild, bacchanalian revelry; men, women and children drink vodka until their condition is shocking to civilization; ribaldry, lewdness, and demoralizing actions of almost every kind characterize those who visit the cemeteries on these occasions. The priests, drunk and boisterous like their parishioners, stagger around with tapers and crosses, soliciting fees for reciting prayers over the graves; these priests, provided they are sober enough, will pray fifteen minutes over any grave for the sum of fifty copecks (twenty-five cents), this being the basis of the regular tariff fixed by them; the dead who have no friends willing to pay this amount, have to sleep without prayers and take their chances of being burned.

I have mentioned a middle class in Russia, but in reality there are only two classes, the aristocratic and the peasant. Russian subjects, as a rule, are either very poor or exceedingly rich, so that in my references to a middle class I intended to designate what in America we call the office-holding people. But in Russia this means

more than it does in America, for officers are much more numerous in that country, and being in the government service, even though they may be ever so poor, yet they



CELEBRATING RECOLLECTION MONDAY IN THE SMOLENSKI CEMETERY.

are accorded a position in society above the peasantry, but not equal to the aristocracy; thus we can only designate them as the middle class *ex officio*.

It is a fact no less singular than unreasonable, that the

poor pay nearly all the taxes in Russia; the rich merchant in St. Petersburg or the owner of municipal real estate pays no taxes to the government; the city revenue is of course derived from city property, but the government receives not a dollar, except as a voluntary gift, from any source but that of agriculture. When Alexander II. granted freedom to the serfs and made the Empire assume a debt of $50,000,000, to pay the noblemen for their manumitted slaves, he did not change the revenue laws, so that the liberated peasants are made to purchase their own freedom. Every acre of land in Russia and every product of the soil is assessed annually and taxed upon a basis fixed to meet the annual budget. In all other occupations there is exemption from tax. A man who desires to engage in business goes to the proper bureau and declares his intentions; he is there furnished with a license, but he cannot pursue any business except that for which his license is issued, under a severe penalty; thus, if one secures a license to follow tailoring the person so privileged cannot engage in any other vocation without surrendering his license as a tailor and taking out a new privilege; his place of business cannot be changed either without first notifying the police; neither can a man move his place of residence without complying with the same conditions. Merchants who are worth $50,000, and who do a business of the same amount annually may become members of the first "guild" upon an annual payment to the government of $300. Those who are worth $25,000 and do an annual busines equal to that amount may become members of the second "guild" by paying annually the sum of $150. These "guilds" are established for the recognition of the aristocracy similar to those which once obtained in England. Members of the first guild wear a uniform to distinguish their

A BALL IN THE WINTER PALACE.

rank; this uniform is more showy than that worn by a Russian general; the cloth is a navy blue, the pants having a gold stripe down the leg, while the coat and vest are embroidered with gold cord, and on the shoulders are immense epaulettes of cord and tinsel. These merchants are invited to the court balls, but may not personally address the Emperor; they must content themselves with viewing royalty and with being entertained in the palace.

Society in St. Petersburg has about it more punctilio than anywhere in the world; it is surrounded by a very high wall, and may be reached only by those having magic keys; an introduction will not suffice, as it does in America, for every one who seeks admission must have the requisites of discreetness, wealth and bizarre manners. Catharine II. was the first to organize society in St. Petersburg, and since her character is pretty generally known, we may readily surmise the kind of stamp she impressed it with. There is in the Hermitage a tablet, which is generally concealed from view by a curtain, upon which is engraved the "ten commandments" of Catharine, which she enforced upon those who attended her parties.

Literally translated they read as follows:

1. Leave outside your rank, your hat, and especially your sword.
2. Leave outside your right of precedence, your pride, and everything akin to them.
3. Be gay, but do not damage anything.
4. Sit, stand or walk, regardless of any person.
5. Talk calmly, and not too loud, so as not to make the head and ears of others ache.
6. Discuss without anger or excitement.
7. Neither sigh nor yawn, nor make others gloomy or dull-spirited.
8. Let all join in any innocent game proposed.

9. Eat whatever is sweet and good, but drink moderately in order that every body's head may be level upon leaving.

10. Tell no tales out of school; that which goes in at one ear must go out at the other before leaving the room.

Punishments provided for a transgression of any of these rules were as follows:

1. Any person transgressing against any one of these rules shall, if two witnesses appear against him, drink one glass of cold water, not excepting the ladies, and read aloud one page of the "Telemachiade," (written by a Russian poet named Tretiakofsky, after whom Tupper was probably fashioned.)

2. Whoever, during the same evening, acts contrary to any three of these rules, shall commit to memory six lines of the same work.

3. Whoever breaks the tenth rule shall not again be admitted.

There was no austerity in any of these prohibitions except the last, which was made to protect the character of those who attended; but though well intended it did not fully serve the purpose. If it were not for the fact that the stories are too shocking for publication I could fill a book with well attested tales of *flagrant* conduct peculiar to these *recherche* entertainments of Catharine II.; I heard scores of them in St. Petersburg, but they are more conducive to morals when forgotten.

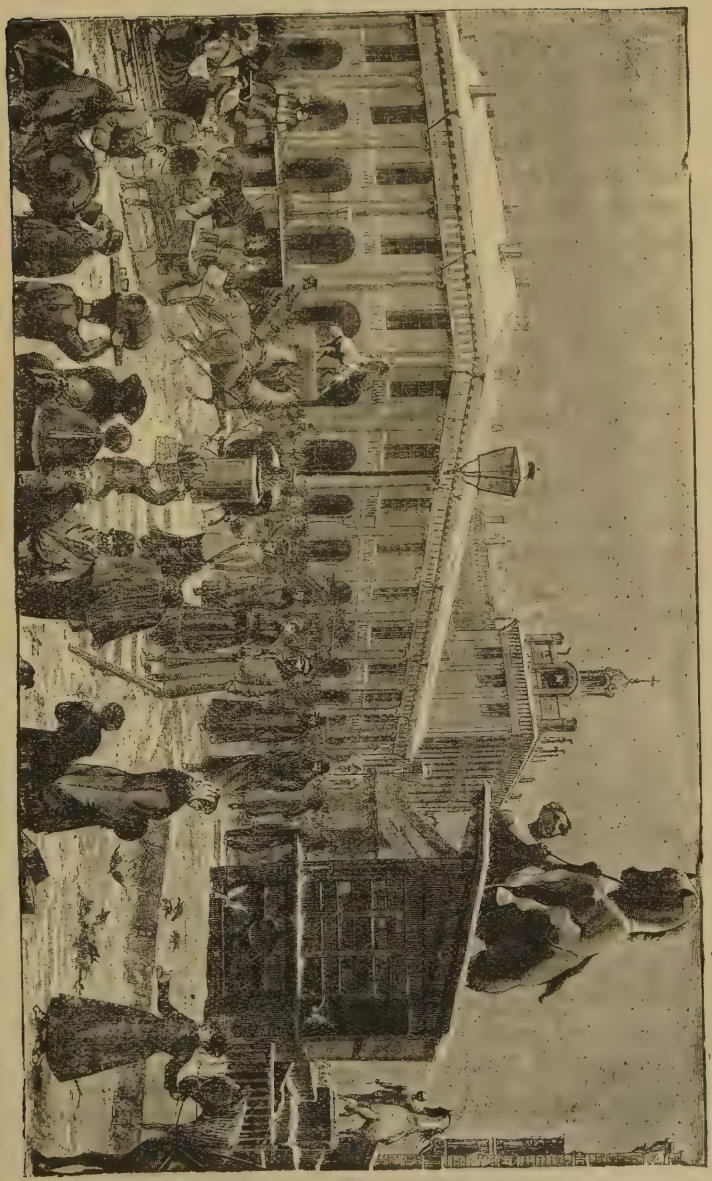
Dancing is a favorite recreation in Russia, indulged in by all classes, and carried, in some instances, to great excess. While in Moscow I was taken to a public house where there was a big ball, and on this occasion I had the pleasure of witnessing a genuine Russian dance. Among the wealthier people very little dancing is seen

A RUSSIAN MASKED BALL.

that is not common to Americans, as French masters hold schools in St. Petersburg and Moscow, and the people naturally adopt the French style. But at this public ball there were several gentlemen with whom my guide was intimately acquainted, and my request, through him, to have the gentlemen execute the Russian dance, was complied with by four couples. They advanced to the center of the room, and, courtesying, one couple led off with a varsouvienne step, which was soon changed to lancers time. The other couples followed, and then they took positions, so that the respective partners faced each other; now succeeded a movement which language is wholly inadequate to describe; the men crouched down in what appeared to be a very painful attitude, as if sitting on their heels; in this position they would kick first with one leg and then with the other, without changing their attitude, and continued this violent exercise until exhaustion was plainly manifested. During this time the ladies waltzed around their partners and tossed their heads from side to side in a coquettish manner. After the crouching movements were concluded the men arose and balanced before their partners, then placing their arms akimbo, they began an awkward shuffling, or rather stamping, something like the Sioux war dance, and while doing this they tossed their heads, stuck out their tongues, pouted and looked cross-eyed.

CHAPTER XXIX.

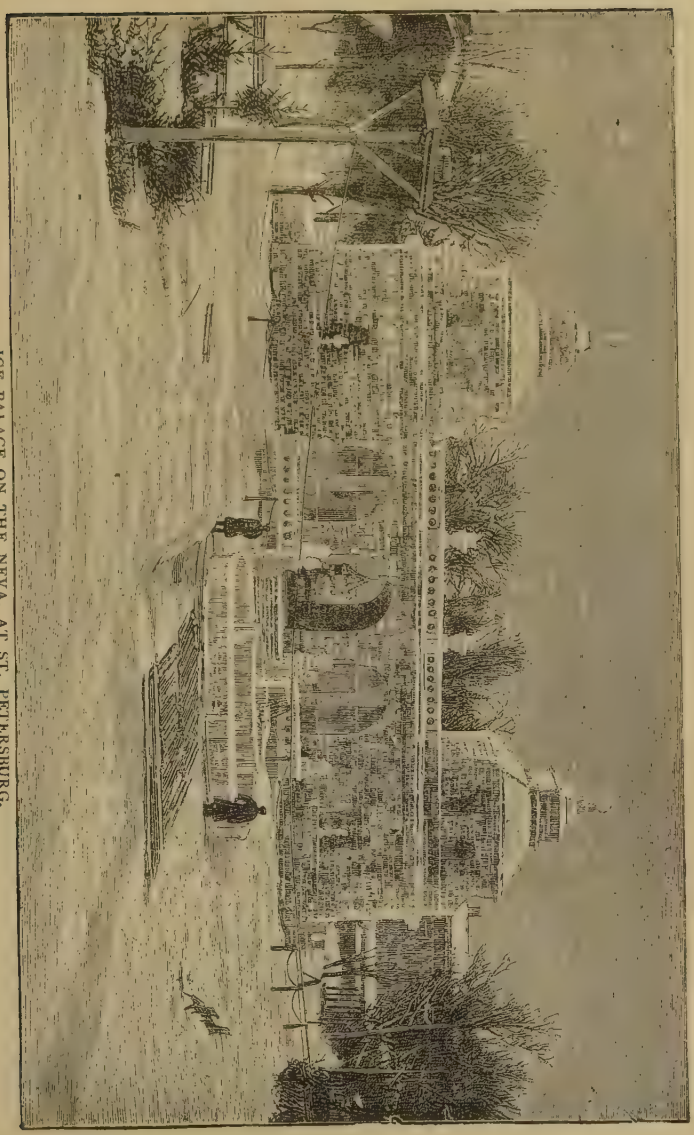
During the summer season St. Petersburg is almost deserted, all the better classes taking up their residence in suburban places, the most popular and fashionable resort



VIEW ON NEVSKOI PROSPEKT AT THE BRIDGE OVER ST. CATHARINE CANAL.

being Parvelosk, which is situated eighteen miles out of the metropolis. The ground on which Parvelosk is built was donated by the Grand Duke Constantine, who erected a music-stand, and laid out about two thousand acres of the surrounding ground in a park, which has since been improved at an expense of $1,000,000. Near this park are hundreds of beautiful cottages, in the midst of green lawns studded with flowers and statuary; parties are given nearly every night in these summer mansions, a few of which I had the pleasure of attending. No people are so polite and fashionable as the wealthy class of Russia, and, I may add, that not even in Paris is there such abandon, and perfect freedom, exhibited as at a Russian ball.

About the first of October those who have summered in rural towns begin to return to St. Petersburg, and directly after this date the fashionable season opens in the city. There are two streets in St. Petersburg which can hardly be surpassed for beauty, one of these, Nevskoi Prospekt, runs north and south, from the Admiralty building to the Alexander Nevskoi Monastery, a distance of three miles, and is as level as a floor; the street is one hundred and fifty feet broad, fifty feet of it being paved with six-sided blocks, set in like the Nicholson pavement except that there are no interstitial strips and fillings of gravel, the blocks being laid in direct contact; this makes a driveway of rare excellence, and, indeed, such as cannot be found anywhere else. The other noted street is the Bolshaya Moscowa, or great Moscow, which runs east and west about two miles. It is constructed like the Nevskoi Prospekt, and both streets are lined with fine buildings. These are the favorite resorts of fashionable people with fine carriages, troikas, and magnificent sleighs. These conveyances are sumptuously made, and are gen-



ICE PALACE ON THE NEVA, AT ST. PETERSBURG.

erally drawn by black horses in beautiful caparisons decorated with gold and silver, while in the semi-circle of the *douga* are a dozen silver bells that merrily jingle and fill the air with cheery music. There are also many drives through Alexander Park, around the suburbs of St. Petersburg, and over the long, broad wooden bridges which span the Neva.

When winter fairly sets in, early in November, the court balls are given, and after the Neva freezes over an ice palace is built every year on the frozen stream. This palace is a thing of such great beauty that it is worth many miles of travel to see. It is built of translucent blocks of ice two feet thick, which, upon being laid together, are solidified by pouring water over the outside and inside walls. The roof and ceiling are also made of ice, and the architecture of the whole is very beautiful. The interior is elegantly furnished with furniture taken from the Winter Palace, magnificent chandeliers are suspended from the ceiling, golden sconses are set in the walls, and luxurious carpets cover the floors. It is in this beautiful, fairy-like palace that some of the finest royal balls given in St. Petersburg by the Imperial family are held.

Courtship, marriage and domestic life in Russia are radically different from what they are in America. As in China, the Russians conduct their love affairs largely by proxy; not because of any peculiar timidity, but in conformity with customs which have prevailed among them from time immemorial. Among the upper classes there are many very beautiful women, with forms as graceful as may be seen among the *haut ton* promenaders on the Avenue de l'Opera in Paris; but among the peasantry beauty is almost as rare as philosopher stones; not only are their faces coarse, flabby and devoid of delicate color,

but their forms are vulgarly repulsive, every development tending towards shapeless obesity; with them mod-

A RUSSIAN COURTSHIP.

esty, too, is an unknown quality, while untidiness is a peculiarity of them all. Yet, no more attractive swains

fall in love with these mottled maidens, woo them in a cholicy sort of way, and marry them without manifesting any special pleasure over the event. In Russia as in Germany, there is a great love for accordions and concertinas; as the Spanish lover beguiles his inamorata with dulcet notes trummed on a guitar, so does the Russian peasant persuade his favorite to some secluded bower, and there puffs into her ears with the bellows of his accordion some tune which he calculates will swell her heart. But however greatly he may surcharge her with love's melody, or however eager he may be to procure an admission of her tender feelings, he will smother the desire and abide the customs of his country. He therefore goes home to his father, to whom he declares his love and desire to marry; the father then invites the parents of his son's flame to take tea; this invitation being accepted, the father cunningly broaches the subject of marriage and at length speaks plainly of his son's desire; the matter is arranged entirely between the old folks, but if either of them objects, then there can be no marriage, for young people in Russia never disobey their parents.

There is another custom in Russia no less peculiar than the courtship just described; it is in using a "matchmaker" to arrange marriages. This personage is a very important one, being a professional body, whose chief occupation is dividing titles; that is, securing for poor but titled lords well dowered but untitled ladies, for it should not be forgotten that all the world is in a scramble for titles, however empty and unprofitable they are in fact.

The accompanying engraving, made from Fedotoff's celebrated painting entitled the *Svakha*—Matchmaker—conveys a comprehensive idea of her employment; briefly described, and using terms employed by the Russians, this

picture reads thus: The man in the caftan (the long coat worn by the middle and poorer classes in Russia) is evidently a moujik *parvenu*, who has been fishing with a

golden bait for a husband of rank superior to his own for his *tseeplonok*—chicken; a "poulet engraisse," if money can make her so. The fortunate *svakha*, not less con-

tented than the happy parents, is come to announce the *polkovnik* (colonel), who has consented to be a suitor for the fair one; and the officer who, nothing diffident, has come to take the offered prize, is giving the last stroke to a well-cherished moustache. Both the mother of the maiden and the *svakha* hold, displayed in their palms, a *nasavoi-platok* (nose-handkerchief), according to the idea of such persons that the exhibition of that article is a *sine qua non* of good breeding. On a side-table refreshments are awaiting the guests, the *koulibayaka* (fish-cake), favorite dish of the middle classes, being the principal attraction. The servants, who are whispering in the corner, and who address their moujik-master as an equal, with "Thou," in spite of his wealth, are as much interested in the event as their *kazein* (master) or the mistress with her *pavoynik* (head-dress), which gives her such an important appearance. The young lady's apparent distress is more than probably feigned. To complete the *ensemble*, Fedotoff has painted a cat stroking or washing with its paw the side of the head nearest the door by which a visiter is expected, as intelligent cats are supposed to do by anticipation.

I did not have the pleasure of seeing a marriage performed while in Russia, but from an English gentleman who has lived in St. Petersburg for the past fifteen years, I obtained a description of the ceremony which he attended at the marriage of his chambermaid, and which he described to me as follows:

"I never had but one married servant in my household, and she was a chambermaid named Macha—a nice, pretty, and obliging peasant girl, who had been with us for about two years. For some time I had observed that she seemed discontented, and on one occasion, asking her why she was not as gay as usual, she replied that she was

nearly eighteen years old and not yet married. Had I been a single man I might have had serious ideas of proposing myself to such a pretty girl; but I simply persuaded her to bear up under her misfortune, and to bide God's time for a husband.

I had quite forgotten the circumstance, when one night late, hearing a great disturbance down in the servants' offices, I went to see what was the matter. As I entered the servants' room all was in confusion, boxes were being opened, bundles ransacked, dresses measured, boots thrown about, under-linen inspected, beads counted (the Russian costume is never worn without as many as six to eight rows of beads round their throat), stockings examined, bed-linen animadverted upon, jewelry valued, goloshes felt, and fur mantles tried on. After a glance at these things, I turned my gaze upon the occupants of the room. There were three or four women servants belonging to the house, a couple of respectable peasant women, dressed in the usual red chintz short petticoats and leather fur-lined mantles, with brilliantly trimmed hoods on their heads, and three peasant men; these last were all fine muscular-looking fellows, with their high knee boots, velvet breeches, and red-and-blue shirts, worn loosely outside the nether garment, something like our old English mock-frocks, except their being shorter, and worn with a many coloured *ceinture*. All the persons there present seemed to be thoroughly interested in the exhibition of clothes going on; but the youngest of the three men showed a slight restlessness as box after box was hurriedly opened, and the contents of each, meeting with apparent approval from the elder among the peasants, elicited from him grunts of satisfaction and digs in the ribs for the young man.

At last, when all had been well examined, Macha, the

chambermaid, who all this time had been doing much the harder part of the work in opening and expatiating on the merits of each article, received a hearty slap on the shoulder from the fine old peasant there present, who in his own native language wished her "much happiness." On this the young man arose from the bench where he had been sitting and, naming a day in that same week wherein we then were, slouched out of the cell or cave (as one might well call the apartments of the servants) to have, we may suppose, some of his favorite "vodka" (the usual Russian spirit drunk by the peasants). This scene that I had been witnessing was neither more nor less than a preliminary before marriage. The sturdy old peasant there was the father of the young fellow who had just gone out, and he had come up from the country to find a wife for his son. He had heard of this young woman from a traveling peddler who went every three months to Moscow to replenish his pack, and who knew half the girls by name who were in want of husbands. On the strength of this information from the peddler the old peasant (the father of the bridegroom-elect), his wife and son had come to judge for themselves as to the eligibility of Mancha's goods and chattels; but, if they had found any article or articles wanting in the bride's *trousseau*, there would have been no marriage Everything depended upon the bride's clothes; but all was there, even to the 154 rubles of the hard-earned savings of the peasant-girl. So she was to be married! and she considered herself fortunate in having a husband given her; not that she liked him, for she had only seen him for the first time that day. He and his father, the old peasant, lived far away in the country; but as the spring was coming on, and the old father would want somebody beside his own wife to help to prepare the

earth for the seed to be sown, the best thing was to get a wife for his son, and thus secure the help of another pair of hands during seed time without the expense of extra wages. So Mancha, our chambermaid, was to be married. She was happy as a bird. For a long time she had stood much chaff as to being an old maid; but now she was going to be married, and the "Benediction," (a Russian rite preceding marriage) and wedding day had already been fixed by the future husband himself. Now she could make fun of others, for in Russia it is a serious thing for a girl if she is not married as soon as the law permits—that is, at sixteen.

Friday came, the day of "Benediction." Macha went about her work as usual; she neither seemed anxious nor nervous. As she had been a good servant, we were all going to honor her by appearing at the ceremony. At about 7 P. M. a small table, covered with a white cloth, was arranged in one corner of our large family dining-room, two or three images of saints, ornamented with flowers and precious stones, were placed on the table, together with a large round sort of bread or cake, which was to play no mean part in the ceremony. A few minutes later the steps of the priest were heard on the marble staircase, together with the heavier step of the peasants' feet, and in another moment the room was full of the bride's friends, arrayed in the most gorgeous chintz dresses, and of the bridegroom's mates, dressed in the usual outdoor black leather "pelisse," lined with sheepskins. All those friends and relations belonging to the lady in whose house the ceremony was taking place stood immediately behind the priest. After everything was arranged in place, a slight stir and bustle was heard, and, the crowd making way, the future bride came sailing in, beautifully attired in a salmon-colored silk and

tulle dress, which her mistress had worn at the very ball given in honor of the Duke of Edinburgh and his Imperial wife by the town of Moscow. How splendid all her friends thought her! She had innumerable rows of pearls around her neck and arms; her veil was of net; but though the dress was magnificent, and must have been very effective when worn by a lady, yet on this peasant woman, with her arms and hands and sun-burnt complexion, it looked ghastly and made the wearer appear repulsive. She passed awkwardly up the *salle* and took her place before the effigies of saints, or "images," as they are called, and immediately after, her future husband (who seemed half-frightened) slipped from the crowd, followed by his father, and took up his position on the right side of the bride. Then the ceremony of "Benediction" commenced; it lasted about forty minutes, the priest reading and chanting together with his clerk many psalms and prayers, while the future man and wife continually bowed themselves to the ground, touching the floor with their foreheads. Then the round cake of bread was put into their hands by the priest, and was kissed by the recipients, afterwards by the bridegroom's father, and then again by the bride's mother, father and friends. This part of the ceremony is to show that "bread is life, and that they pray they may ever have bread both in this life and in the one to come."

As soon as the priest had finished, champagne was brought in by the generosity of the lady of the house; the first glass was handed to the priest, and the next to the engaged couple, who now remained as if struck dumb. As soon as they put their lips to it, congratulations poured in from all the assembled crowd, who, on receiving an acknowledgment for their kind wishes, could oblige them to kiss each other as often as they were told. Of

course everybody did so, while the poor unhappy pair had to go through the loving, caressing ceremony as if enjoying it. When all the glasses were emptied the priest dismissed the happy couple, the "Benediction" was over, and now nothing but "Marriage" remained to be solemnized. This last ceremony was to be performed on the following Sunday, so that acquaintance, examination of wardrobe, Benediction, and Marriage would be all got through with in less than a week. The Sunday came, and with it a great thaw; the distance to the church was not far, but the bride could not go in her thin boots even ten steps, so an "Isvostchik" was called, who gently placed the future bride in his vehicle, and drove her to the church. There the ceremony was somewhat long, in fact, so much so that the bride's cousin was unable to continue holding the wreath over her head throughout the whole ceremony; he was relieved by another peasant, who took kindly to the task, and who was heard to mutter, "The bride is a bonny lass, I'd give six years to have her!" After the ceremony all the party adjourned to a public-house or "Traktir," where they made as jolly as they possibly could with five or six quarts of "vodka" for the men, and as many quarts of quass, or what the French call *Limonade des Cochons*, for the women.

This then is the usual style of Russian marriages amongst the peasantry, the difference being only that in ordinary cases, where the lady takes no interest in the persons marrying, the ceremony is performed in the lower regions of the house, and the bride may not be so elegantly attired as was our Macha. That Macha was well married according to Russian ideas I have no doubt, but would it not have been better had she married the man who would have served six years to have her?"

Easter customs in Russia are very pretty, this day

EASTER CUSTOMS IN RUSSIA.

being observed like Christmas or New Year is with us. Easter eggs, which, however, are not colored, are used in a variety of ways to encourage courtship. "Catching butterflies" is a peculiar sport of Easter, which consists in young men of the villages going about on snow-shoes, with nets, crying out, "who'll be my butterfly;" the idea is that the girl who is first seen in a doorway by one who carries the net and who smiles upon him, will become his wife.

But I am sorry to say that domestic life in Russia is generally a very unpleasant existence. Among the peasantry there is little virtue but a great deal of vice. Men and women are both prone to drink, and they never know anything of refinement. A peasant thinks very much less of his wife than of his horse, because he can easily obtain the former, but the latter he must pay cash for; this is the way he looks at married life. During my short stay in St. Petersburg, I saw scores of men beating their wives in the street and no one cared to interfere. One particular instance I witnessed of extreme brutality, a man began abusing his wife who made no complaint but doggedly hung her head (I suspected that she was half drunk), whereupon he knocked her down with his fists and then kicked her unmercifully; she was very badly hurt but he jerked her upon her feet again and then squeezed her right hand until the bones were almost crushed; she screamed with pain and implored him to desist, but he dragged her off with him still squeezing her hand and occasionally striking her in the face. Although a policeman and dozens of citizens stood by watching the husband's cruelty, none offered to interfere. But I was assured that all Russians whip their wives, which I am quite prepared to believe of the poorer classes; how could we expect them to be kind and affectionate to the

wives when the church, which is all-powerful and influential in Russia, teaches that women have no souls and that their proper relation to man is that of an inferior being who may approach him only in subjection, and may not dispute any of his acts however unjust or flagitious; thus wives in Russia are hardly as well cared for as domestic animals, and their labor I am sure is much greater.

CHAPTER XXX.

A History of the Jewish Outrages in Russia.

As a race the Jews have endured more persecutions than any other people, and yet they have always been the most prosperous and homogenious. There are several remarkable race peculiarities about them which may be found in no other religious sect, chief among these strange characteristics being their tenacity, whether regarded in a religious or business sense. Every day we meet intelligent men, who may have been raised under the most pious tutelage and had their youth fully saturated with Christian precepts, going about denying Christ, but how many Jews, in all history, have departed from their faith and accepted Christ as the promised Messiah? I never heard of one. Yet, branded with contempt, driven from homes which their own industry builded; despoiled of their property by edicts of Christian governments, every semblance of personal liberty taken from them, and burdened with special taxes that was but another name for confiscation, still, the Jews have prospered in every land, under all circumstances, as no other people. We never see a Jewish beggar, never hear of them being cared for

in municipal hospitals or poor houses, and in no other way do they become burdens to the State. So that prosperity, despite all adversities, and loyalty to their ancient religion, are distinguishing traits in the Jewish character.

If we ask why the Jews have been so remorselessly pursecuted by all countries in which they have sought a home—excepting in America—we are brought to the consideration of a problem impossible of satisfactory solution. In this age of commerce and international reciprocity, when the plowshare has superceded the sword, when the broad principles of liberalism have taught us to respect the opinions of others, even though they should be in conflict with our own, it is a matter for surprise that there should develope such race prejudices among people acknowledging the same sovereign, as would lead to personal assaults and from these to outrages which shame Russian civilization.

There are several causes operating in Russia to antagonize the relations between Russians and Jews. When I asked Count Tolstoi for an explanation of the outrages he shrugged his shoulders, blandly extended his hands and made only an untranslatable facial expression. I got no satisfaction from the minister and therefore extended my inquiries into other quarters, with better results. In the early part of 1882 Alexander III. sent for and requested an interview with one of the Rothschild bankers, who was just completing a magnificent residence in St. Petersburg. The Czar was in sore need of money to meet the budget that had been submitted, so, rather than entrust the negotiation of a loan to his Chancellor or Minister of Finance he concluded that, by seeking a personal interview with Rothschild, he could secure, at a moderate rate of interest, the sum required. In response to the Czar's request Rothschild appeared at the

Peterhoff Imperial residence, where he was very soon made acquainted with the Emperor's wishes, but instead of treating the request for a loan in a business way Rothschild took advantage of the occasion to express a strong disapproval of the Jewish outrages that had already taken place in southern Russia, and then had the temerity to remind the Czar that it was a Jew to whom the government had come for financial aid. Without defending his policy the Czar arose, and pointing his finger toward the door said, "There is the exit, be gone at once, and I order you to quit Russia entirely; this country shall not be your place of residence, for the sight of you would pollute an honest man." Rothschild was not slow to obey the peremptory order, and his unfinished palace in St. Petersburg is now for sale at a great bargain. This incident may serve as a straw to indicate from whence the wind of Jewish oppression blows. But there is another almost equally important fact having a direct bearing upon this vexed question:

Count Ignatieff came to the office of Minister of the Interior in 1880, I believe: he was trusted with *carte blanche* powers because he ranked next to Gortchakoff as a diplomatist; but it was within a few months after his acceptance of the ministerial port folio that fresh outrages were reported perpetrated upon the Jews in Poland and southern Russia. The Count was expected to punish those engaged in the attack and for a time every person thought he would bring down a retributive justice upon the heads of all who molested the Jews. This idea obtained by reason of the Count's issuing several dreadful orders addressed to commanders of troops throughout Russia, ordering them to punish without mercy all Jew baiters; he went still further, and declared that he intended to put down every Jewish out-

break by the strong force and law at his command. His violent policy thoroughly alarmed the riotous factions for a time, but as none of these laws or declarations were put into effect the outrages were begun again and week after week grew more horrifying. The Jews were not only robbed of their money and merchandise, but mobs entered their residences, killed their little children, brutally and lustfully assaulted the females, brained the men and then burned the desecrated homes. Ignatieff continued to threaten, but he never punished, until finally it was currently reported that he secretly connived at and encouraged the assaults; not only was it so reported but, impressed with the fact, many of the richest Jews in Russia raised a purse of more than two hundred thousand roubles, which they used to accomplish his removal. How this money was applied I did not learn, but my information that it was so used is of such a character as does not admit of any doubt. Ignatieff, we know, was dismissed very suddenly and at a time when he had planned many changes which it was reported had been approved by the Czar.

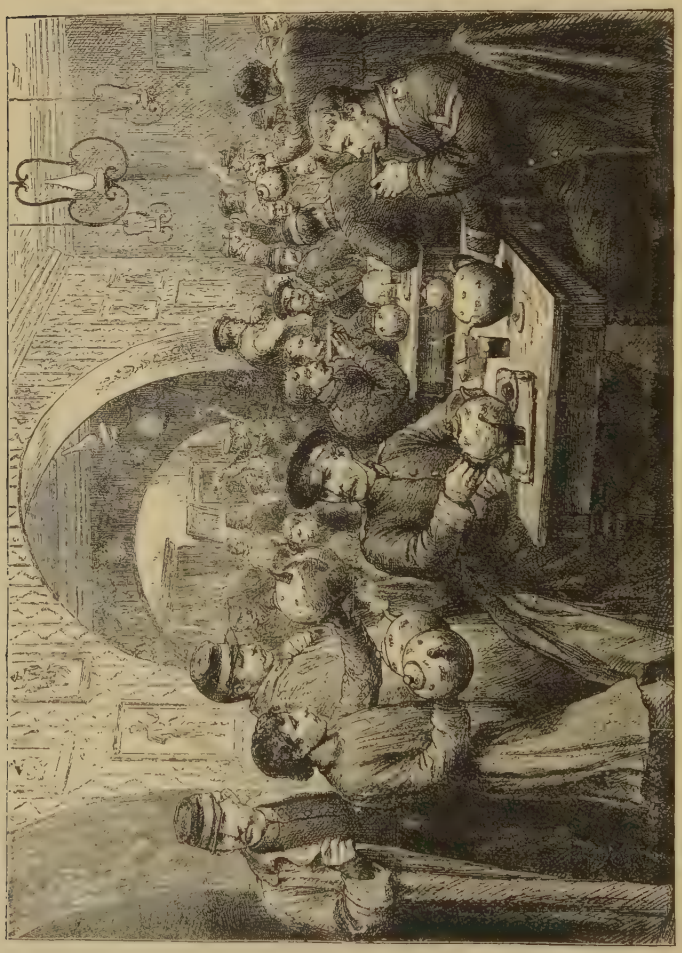
Being unable to obtain any satisfactory information in St. Petersburg concerning the Jews, and as there were no records from which official data could be had descriptive of the outrages, I decided to visit Warsaw, in Poland, because several outbreaks had occurred in that vicinity, and because I knew Warsaw to be very largely populated by Jews. Accordingly I went to Moscow and there took the train for Warsaw, which is five hundred miles distant. This road is not only the most aggravating line on which I ever travelled, but it is next to the road which runs from Moscow to Odessa, and I am told that travel on this latter line is worse than riding a country pig to market. By advice of a gentleman whose acquaintance I had form-

ed in the Holy Mother City, upon taking passage I besought the guard of a first-class van and gave him five roubles not to put any other passenger in with me, so that I might be the sole occupant and thus be enabled to stretch out on the seat and sleep. A little explanation at this point will no doubt be of benefit to the reader: in Russia, as in all Europe, passenger cars are made in compartments, generally four in each car, entrance to which is made at as many side doors; the guards are what we call conductors, but instead of there being one in charge of an entire train, as in this country, in Russia there is a guard for each car. The guard to your compartment is your keeper, because, as you enter he locks the door which he does not open until a large station is reached. There are no sleeping cars run on the line between Moscow and Warsaw for fear, perhaps, that the passengers might sleep themselves to death. Such monotonous scenery, a level, gray, sandy, weird waste, not a mole hill even to relieve the surface, and when a fine forest is passed you instinctively remark on its striking resemblance to the others, every tree being apparently of the same height, diameter, and general appearance. The time between Moscow and Warsaw is fifty hours, but it appears like an age in the earth's life and development. At every little station the train stops to allow train-hands and passengers to take tea; when it is ready to proceed again the chief guard blows a police whistle twice, which is answered by two from the engine; at this a fellow who stands beside a switch generally one hundred yards ahead of the engine, blows a little brass horn and holds up a folded green flag; another fellow rings a gong, ten or a dozen guards cry out "all aboard," or its equivalent, the doors are then shut, and if no accident occurs the train starts off like an old man suffering from hypochon-

dria and inflammatory rheumatism. At every road crossing there is a woman standing holding out her green flag, I presume to let the engineer know that the coast is clear, but then this seems to be unnecessary, for the train would never do any damage to anything that could crawl. But the funniest thing about railroading in Russia, or at least what amused me most, was to see how the axle boxes were examined; at every stopping place, however small, and utterly regardless of the speed at which we had been creeping, two well-greased men passed along the train with hammers, tamping and oil, sounded each wheel and critically examined for hot boxes. They must have gotten the idea of hot boxes from the road between St. Petersburg and Moscow, or else read about them in foreign journals, for I am quite sure there was never a hot box on the Moscow and Warsaw road.

We stopped one hour and a half at three different places, Smolensk, Minsk and Brest; before, we had stopped to drink tea, but at these cities the delay was made to give every passenger and train-man time to get drunk, and I never saw such an industrious use of opportunity made as on these occasions; every fellow made a rush for vodka, which was kept in decanters on tables, and distributed by women, in small glasses; in about fifteen minutes I was the only sober man on the train; such yelling, singing and carousal, but no one seemed to get mad until another train met us at Minsk, loaded with soldiers. The troops were in box-cars and their first salutations convinced me that they, too, were drunk; despite every effort made by their officers the soldiers got out of their cars, made a raid on the station, and then directed their attention to about one dozen of our passengers who had expressed some objections to the high-handed privil-

eges that were being indulged by the troops; both sides drew up their forces in fine style and then began a tongue



SCENE IN AN EATING STATION AT BREST.

fight which for virulence, noise and froth I never saw equaled, but with all their vehement gesturing, neither party advanced beyond their original stations, so that a

collision was avoided, and the row, once so threatening, became only a farce of cowardice.

In making the trip from Moscow to Warsaw I was without an interpreter, and of course had to take the blunt end of every obstacle. I had learned two or three words of Russian, but only one that I could make use of while railroading, this single word was *chi*, meaning tea; thus, whenever I reached an eating station I would run up to a luncheon counter, cry out *chi* and then pick up whatever I saw that appeared palatable. But a diet of tea, brown bread and Russian cakes becomes discouraging after a time and I resolved to extend the bill of fare. I wanted some meat, beef, mutton, veal, chicken, etc., but to all intents and purposes I was a deaf mute. An idea came to me, however, when we reached Brest that I was not slow to put into execution. Seated at long tables in the dining room were fifty or sixty Russians, many of whom were officers, and all were drinking tea and vodka, or munching dry cakes. Calling a waiter to me I gave him to understand, by gesture, that I wanted something, which something I indicated by rising to full height, clapping my sides three times and then crowing loud enough to rattle the dishes. Instantly every eye in the room was centered on me, but as I took up my plate and passed it to the waiter he comprehended my wishes and soon brought me a piece of chicken. All those at the tables now understood why I had crowed, and such a capital joke did they esteem it that more than a dozen came over, shook my hand, laughed immoderately and then proffered me bottles of wine; thereafter my companions took such an interest in providing for me that they anticipated all my wants.

CHAPTER XXXI.

I reached Warsaw on a Sunday afternoon and engaging a carriage drove two miles or more, to the Hotel Victoria. Warsaw contains a population of 350,000, (twenty-three per cent of which are Jews) and is located on the Vistula River, a pretty stream, large enough for a considerable commerce. Nearly one-half the town is built on bottom lands, which portion is so foul with dirty people, crazy-looking houses and stinking streets, that mufflers for the head could be used to great advantage by respectable persons while passing through it. That portion of the city built on the hill presents a mediæval appearance, particularly those buildings that overlook the river.

I was now in Poland, a country that has passed through more desperate ordeals than any other nation on the globe; Warsaw, her ancient capital, that has been the home of so many distinguished heroes, whose streets have been channels through which the blood of thousands has rushed, and the scenes of massacres that are too dreadful for contemplation; here have flourished a people so proud that rather than lose their identity by amalgamation with other powers, chose to sacrifice themselves, and die in the blazonry of bravery, freedom and the history they had made. On every square there stands some monument commemorating the deeds of her great men, while tablets are here and there discovered by visitors, telling in simple annals of bloody deeds on the spots they mark. Though rent by three powerful nations, Germany, Austria and Russia, who fastened their fangs in poor Poland like hungry dogs fighting for a piece of meat, she is still proud, though no longer glorious—a

sick lion that has yet a brave heart but cannot defend itself.

Poland is now a province of Russia, but, true to her chivalric character, she refuses to assimilate with that nation. There are only two Greek churches in Warsaw, but of Lutherans and Catholics there are many. So great is the hatred for Russia that Poland refuses to adopt Muscovite exchange; copecks and roubles are comparatively rare in Warsaw, in place of which the Poles use a little coin called "grozy," equivalent to one-half cent, which was the last coinage of Poland, in 1840.

I was very much rejoiced to find that the manager of the Hotel Victoria spoke excellent English, and as he was a man of some prominence in Warsaw, his services were to me of great importance. Through him I obtained an introduction to the Mayor and also to some other important gentlemen of the city, who afterwards gave me such assistance as I needed to secure the information for which I had visited the place. Before proceeding with my investigations I accepted an invitation from the Mayor, who spoke excellent German and a little English, to view the city and its most interesting features. Of this drive I have a very pleasant remembrance, for never shall I forget my visit to Lazienski Park and Wilanow Palace, which are a few miles out of Warsaw, and reached by driving over a very rough road, but they are the most pleasing sights I witnessed in all Europe. In Lazienski Park is the renowned palace of Poniatowski, consisting of two buildings, which face each other, four hundred yards apart, and both are built on the margin of a lake that is grandly beautiful. Though very old the palaces are kept in perfect repair, and are furnished in a manner befitting the richest and most powerful potentate. But though the rooms in these palaces are magnificent as

wealth can make them, I was attracted particularly to the ruins of a theatre which, two hundred years ago, stood in all its grandeur on the banks of the beautiful lake referred to. The arrangement of this gallery of amusement was ingeniously romantic. On the banks of the lake was built a large amphitheatre, of stone, provided with private boxes, which, however, were in the center of the semi-circle. Entrance was through doors beside which were sculptured dragons, and up a stairway that lead to the amphitheatre. The seats were of stone, but elegantly cushioned and arranged suitable to the different ranks of those who attended the entertainments. In front of this amphitheatre, but on an island in the lake, was a stage, also made of stone, most elaborately fitted up with all needful accessories for mimic deeds, the fury of battle or the plaints of love. These stage representations were witnessed by those occupying seats in the amphitheatre, the view being greatly enhanced by romantic surroundings of forest trees, and limpid water sparkling under scintillating rays of a silver moon. But both amphitheatre and stage are now in ruins, crumbled with the glory of Poland, leaving moss-covered stones as a memorial of those times when Polish Kings were in their pride, and when ambition crowned their subjects.

From Lazienski Park we drove four miles to the palace of Wilanow, which was built by Poland's greatest King, Sobiesky (John III). This fine property is the only estate that has escaped Russian confiscation, and is still owned and occupied by Sobiesky's descendants, who are wealthy enough to preserve its former grandeur. The palace is very large and contains many galleries filled with curiosities, fine paintings and statuary; its floor, like the palace at Lazienski Park, are of polished woods ingeniously inlaid so as to produce a

most harmonious effect. The grounds cover nearly two hundred acres, every foot of which is cared for by the most artistic landscape gardeners; there is also a large lake connected with the palace which is kept stocked with game fish, and the banks are embowered with trees that are luxurious in growth and trimmed in a manner which produces an effect almost magical. My curiosity was very much excited by three sun-clocks which, by chance, I observed on the palace, one being on the east end, another on the south, and a third on the west gable of the building. These clocks consist of a large dial above which is a stone image representing "time;" in the right hand of this image, or statue, is a sword so exactly placed that the sun's rays falling upon it a shadow is thrown upon the dial that indicates the time of day, even to a minute. There were three clocks so that the sun's position might be facing one of the clocks morning, noon, and afternoon. This wonderful time-piece—for the three must be taken as one—has marked the hours for nearly one hundred years, having fortunately escaped the destructive influences that have desolated Poland, and sent so many thousands of her people into exile.

Returning to the city we drove through the Jewish quarters, which are as distinct and clearly defined as is the Chinese settlement in San Francisco. Here I observed a race of people so wedded to their ancient customs and religions, as to resist every practice and sentiment of those by whom they are surrounded. Polish Jews are as different in character from the Jews of America as any two races having a common ancestry can be; they are marvellously exclusive and homogeneous; over their places of business they have signs printed with Hebrew letters; their costume never varies, every man

among them wearing a long-tailed coat, reaching to their knees, and buttoned up tight in front; around the neck they wear a coarse, woolen comfort, and a little cap crowns their head. I have no language at my command that could describe their filth; they literally reek with stenches. I was told that though bacon is abhorrent to them, on account of religious prejudices, yet the Jews use it on a certain occasion, viz: when a Jew purchases a new shirt, his next act is to procure a piece of bacon, with which he thoroughly greases the garment all over; he then puts on the shirt and does not take it off for one or two years, or until it is entirely worn out. The bacon is used to prevent vermin from getting on their filthy bodies. I am quite prepared to believe this statement, since only such a disgustingly nasty practice can account for the odor which they carry about them.

Foul, homely and narrow-minded as the Polish Jews are, they succeed in accumulating so much money that gentlemen of caste pay them tribute, and they therefore force their importance among even the most aristocratic class. The character of Shylock will certainly fit some of them, judging by the experience of a professor of languages in the leading university of Russia, who borrowed seven hundred roubles from one under the following circumstances, as he told me: A young man, with whose family the professor had long been intimate, lost his mother by a sudden illness, and being sorely pressed for funds with which to provide burial and to meet other expenses, he applied to the professor for a loan, which he promised to return within one month. The professor did not have the necessary amount, seven hundred roubles, but so influenced was he by the entreaties of his young friend, that he went to a Jew and borrowed the money, upon

his situation, as will hereafter be explained. He gave his note for the amount, and then, as required, gave an agreement binding himself to pay ten per cent. per month for the loan; this he was influenced to do by a belief that the young man would fulfil his obligation at the time appointed for payment. But when the month expired the promise was violated, so that the professor was left with a security debt on his hands which he had no means of liquidating. At the end of every month he had to pay the Jew seventy roubles, and if he chanced to be one day behind time the Jew would berate him soundly, and threaten to throw him out of doors by taking all his household property. The laws in Russia are such that if a debtor becomes delinquent his creditor can peremptorily attach every article of furniture or clothing belonging to the debtor or his wife; in addition to this, if the debtor holds any position of trust, upon complaint and proof of debt made by the creditor, he may be removed, and is thereafter disqualified from assuming any place of trust again. This law is the creation of an aristocracy, and forms one of the principal complaints of Nihilists. The Jew was enabled, by threatening an enforcement of this most oppressive law, to compel the professor to pay the monthly interest, which at times caused him much distress. Salaries paid to educators in Russia are so small that the professor was never able to discharge any portion of the original debt, and when he related the circumstances to me he had paid in interest thirty-five hundred roubles, while the original debt of seven hundred roubles was still held against him. Fortunately, he had just discovered a technicality by which he could avoid the further payment of interest; this loop-hole, as he defined it, consisted in the fact, of which a lawyer friend had advised him, that the Jew was licensed as a merchant,

and that he had no broker privilege, so that the lending of money by him was an offense, which the professor declared he should make the Jew answer for. It was another case of Shylock brought to justice.

CHAPTER XXXII.

At Warsaw I found there was such a general acquaintance with the riots that had taken place against the Jews throughout Russia, that I had no difficulty in collecting all essential facts, and so many, too, that I could not undertake to give them the extensive description which they merit. I shall therefore have to present a history of the riots in a concise form, and within the space remaining that was alloted for this work on Russia and exile life.

The most outrageous atrocities perpetrated against the Jews took place in the latter part of 1880 and in 1881. Germany started the anti-Semitic agitation, which speedily spread to Russia, because of the revolution already excited by factions which had pronounced against law and inflamed the masses to disorder. Another reason is found in the fanaticism of the Russian people who believe it is a righteous act to slay a Jew; and yet another, and perhaps stronger reason still is the natural love of poor, degraded, ignorant and brutal people to engage in plunder. The Jews were rich, and the peasantry poor, so a pretense was had to despoil them, according to biblical precedent.

Within a period of eight months, four of 1880 and four of 1881, a tract of country equal in area to the British Isles and France combined, stretching from the

Baltic to the Black Sea, was the scene of horrors that have hitherto only been perpetrated in mediæval days during times of war. Men ruthlessly murdered, tender infants dashed to death, or roasted alive in their own homes, married women the prey to a brutal lust that often caused their death, and young girls violated in the sight of their relatives by soldiers who should have been the guardians of their honor. In the face of these horrors loss of property is of little moment, yet they were accompanied by the razing of whole streets inhabited by Jews, by the systematic firing of the Jewish quarters of towns in Western Russia, and by the pillage of all the property on which thousands of Jewish families were dependent for existence.

In addition to all this many Russian towns heartlessly seized the occasion to expel from their limits crowds of Jews, who were left by this inhuman and deliberate measure homeless amid masses infuriated against them. And during these scenes of carnage and pillage the local authorities stood by with folded arms, doing little or nothing to prevent their occurrence and recurrence, and allowed the ignorant peasantry to remain up to this day under the impresssion that a ukase existed ordering the property of the Jews to be handed over to their fellow-Russians. So far from publicly expressing reprobation of these outrages, the Minister issued a rescript clearly betraying that the Russian authorities fully shared the prejudice of the mob, and contemplated adding to the burdens and inequalities which have been the direct cause of the embittered feeling that has led to these disorders.

When the assassination of the Czar roused all Russia to the highest pitch of excitement, it was confidently predicted that the approaching Easter would see an outbreak against the Jews. It was said afterwards that the pre-

diction was aided in its fulfilment by Panslavist emissaries from Moscow, who planned all the subsequent troubles. It is at least certain that rumors of a rising had reached Elizabethgrad, and caused the heads of the Jewish community, who form a third of its 30,000 inhabitants, to apply for special protection from the Governor. No notice was taken of the appeal, and on Wednesday, April 27th, the dreaded outbreak took place. A religious dispute in a *cabalet* led to a scuffle which grew into a general *melee*, till the mob obtained possession of the dram-shop and rifled it of its contents. Inflamed by the drink thus obtained, the rioters proceeded to the Jewish quarter and commenced a systematic destruction of the Jewish shops and warehouses. At first some attempt was made by the Jews to protect their property, but this only served to increase the violence of the mob, which proceeded to attack the dwellings of the Jews and to wreck the synagogue. Amid the horrors that ensued a Jew named Zololwenski lost his life, and no fewer than thirty Jewesses were outraged. At one place, two young girls, in dread of violation, threw themselves from the windows. Meanwhile the military had been called out, but only to act at first as spectators and afterwards as active participants. One section of the mob, formed of rioters and soldiers, broke into the dwelling of an old man named Pelikoff, and on attempting to save his daughter from a fate worse than death, they threw him from the roof, while twenty soldiers proceeded to work their will on his unfortunate daughter. When seen by the gentleman who related to me this fact, Pelikoff was in a state of hopeless madness, and his daughter completely ruined in mind and body. The whole Jewish quarter was at the mercy of the mob till April 29th. During the two days of the riots 500 houses and 100 shops were destroyed, and

whole streets were razed to the ground. It may be added that the property destroyed and stolen was reckoned at 2,000,000 roubles ($1,000,000).

The evidence of pent-up anti-Jewish passion displayed by these scenes encouraged the foes of the Jews to wider and more systematic attacks. In the excesses which followed, the masses soon got to recognize professional ringleaders from Great Russia. These distributed placards, found afterwards to have been issued from a secret printing-press at Kiew, in which it was declared that the Czar had given his orthodox subjects the property held by the Jews. In most cases the very day on which a riot might be expected was announced beforehand—Sundays and saints' days being chosen, as the days when the lower orders were at liberty. After a week's pause, a whole series of riots broke out, commencing on May 7, at Smielo, near Czergassy, where thirteen men were killed and twenty wounded, and 1,600 were left without homes. On the following day, Sunday, May 8, a most serious riot broke out at Kiew, once the capital of Russia, and still an important town, containing 20,000 Jews in a population of 140,000. Here the riot had been definitely announced for the Sunday, and the Jews sent a deputation to the Governor, requesting him to call out his soldiers to prevent disturbance. He bluntly refused, saying that he would not trouble his soldiers for the sake of a pack of Jews. During the riot, which broke out on the day fixed, the police and the soldiers again acted the same part that they had at Elizabethgrad. The first procedure of the mob had been to storm the dram-shops, and, staving in the brandy casks, to wallow in the spirit. During the period of license that followed four Jews were killed, twenty-five women and girls were violated, of whom five died in consequence, as was proved

at the subsequent trials. At the house of Mordecai Wienarski, the mob, disappointed in the search for plunder, caught up his little child, three years old, and brutally threw it out of the window. The child fell dead at the feet of a company of Cossacks who were drawn up outside, yet no attempt was made to arrest the murderers. At last, when several houses were set on fire, the military received orders to make arrests, which they proceeded to execute with much vigor, making 1,500 prisoners, among whom 150 were Jews arrested for protecting their lives and properties. No less than 2,000 Jews were left without shelter by the dismantling or the burning of their houses, and for the relief of immediate necessities a Kiew committee soon afterwards had to disburse the sum of $150,000.

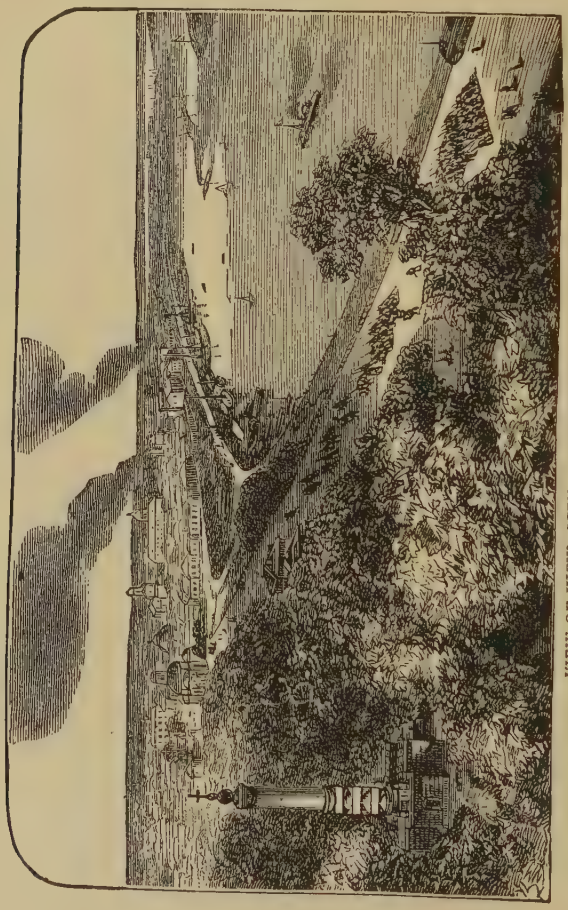
Next day similar scenes of violence occurred at Browary, in the neighborhood of Kief, in the province of Czernigow. On the same day still more disgraceful deeds were enacted at Berezowka, in the province of Cherson. Here lust seemed more a principal motive than plunder. While the Jews of the village were at synagogue a mob attacked the Jewesses and violated many of them, causing the death of three; others who escaped the worse evil were driven into the river, and nine ultimately died from the effects of the exposure. When the Jews came to the rescue, two of them were killed and a young lad was stoned to death.

The neighborhood of Kief was again visited on the next day, May 10, at Konoptop and at Wassilkov. At both places the attacks had been planned: at the former wooden crosses were placed before the doors of Christians that their houses might be spared, while at the latter the day of riot had been announced, and the report diligently spread about that the Czar had given the prop-

erty of the Jews away. At Wassilkov and in the neighborhood eight lives were lost, seven at one fell swoop at the inn kept by a Jew named Rykelmann. He was forced to admit the mob to his wine-cellars, and, during his absence in search of assistance, the drunken rioters cut the throats of his wife and six children.

By this time the chief towns and villages of Southern Russia were ablaze with violence and riot. Throughout the whole of the provinces of Cherson, Taurida, Ekaterinoslav, Poltava, Kief, Czernigov, and Podolia the notion spread fast as wildfire that the Jews and their property had been handed over to the tender mercies of the populace, a notion that seems almost justified in the face of the inertness of the Governor-General in checking the riots at Elizabethgrad and Kief. At Wasilgin the Mayor even read a copy of the supposed ukase to the citizens, and a riot would have ensued had not the village priest done his duty and declared his belief that no such ukase existed. At Alexandrovsk, on the banks of the Dnieper, the operatives carried out what they thought to be the will of the Czar, on May 13, rendering 300 out of the 400 Jewish families of the place homeless, and destroying property to the amount of 400,000 roubles. As usual, the riots were previously announced, and the appeal to the Governor to send for additional troops proved fruitless. Even after the riots had commenced, a telegram dispatched to the capital town of the province, Ekaterinoslav, was delayed for four hours by the Governor before it was sent off. At Ekaterinoslav itself a projected riot was happily prevented by the issue of a proclamation by the local authorities declaring the Jews to be true subjects of the Czar and entitled to protection of their property. At Polonnoze, near Kief, a disaster was averted by the forethought of the Mayor, who

changed the market day to Saturday, and on the peasants complaining he read them a lecture on the utility of the Jews as middle-men, and induced them to promise not to molest their Jewish fellow-citizens.



VIEW OF KIEW, SCENE OF THE JEWISH OUTRAGES.

From Alexandrovsky the instigators paid a visit to the Jewish agricultural colonies in the province of Ekaterinoslav, which have now been established for more than forty years. The chief centres, Gulaypol, Orjechow and

Marianpol, were visited in turn, and though no violence seems to have been done to the persons of the Jews, their farms were almost entirely destroyed. At Orjechow the instigators who led the mob were dressed as police officers, and produced a document falsely professing to be the proclamation of the Czar. The farming implements were all destroyed, and 500 cattle and 10,000 sheep driven off. At Kamichewka the Jews adroitly turned the supposed ukase of the Czar into a safeguard. Hearing that the rioters were advancing to attack, they brought the keys of their houses to their Christian neighbors, saying that if the ukase were true it would be better that their neighbors should have their property than the rioters, and if the ukase proved to be untrue, of course their good neighbors would return the keys. The Christians of the village accordingly repulsed the rioters, and in a few days the Jews of Kamichewka were again in possession of their property.

Up to this time the riots had chiefly arisen among the urban populations, but they now spread into the rural districts and reached every little village where even a single Jew resided. A Jew was murdered at Rasdory, a few miles southeast of Orjechow, and at Znamenka, near Nikopol, on the Dnieper, a Jewish innkeeper named Besser was murdered and his wife dishonored, after which both were cast into the river. At Balka, also on the bank of the Dnieper, there was only one Jew, Allowicz by name. A band of ruffians went to his house on May 17, and, finding him absent, they violated his wife, and, to conceal the crime, set fire to the house while the poor woman lay helpless in it. All this was witnessed by her little daughter, crouched in a ditch hard by. On the preceding day another tragedy had occurred at Kitzkis, where the house of one Preskoff was set on fire,

and he, with his two little children, left to roast in it, while the wife and mother looked on, vainly appealing for mercy to the ruffianly perpetrators of the crime. At Gregorievk a Jewish innkeeper named Ruffmann was cooped in one of his own barrels and cast into the Dnieper. Again, at Kanzeropol a man named Enman was murdered brutally and his wife violated and afterward killed. Such were the deeds that were done on the banks of the Dnieper during the month of May.

Meantime the seaport of Odessa had likewise been the scene of an anti-Jewish riot. Originally announced for May 13, it was postponed till Sunday, May 15, without, however, any precautions being taken by the Governor, who had, as usual, been duly warned of the impending outbreak. Though only lasting for six hours, the riot resulted in the death of a Jew named Handelmann, and eleven cases of violation are reported, one resulting in death. Here the Jews seemed to have been most energetic in their resistance. Of the 800 arrests made, 150 were Jews, twenty-six of whom were afterward charged with carrying revolvers without a permit. The police estimated the damage done at 1,137,831 roubles, while those more immediately concerned raised the sum to 3,000,000. Similar scenes took place on the same day at Wolvezysk, on the borders, where a riot had been announced for the Sunday. A week afterward the lower orders at Berdyczew rose against the Jews, and on May 24 a riotous disturbance occurred at Zmerinka, in Podolia.

Thus, within a month of the first outbreak, almost every town in Southern Russia had seen such horrors as here described. Apart from the influence of ringleaders, the rioters had no cause to incite them to rapine, except the force of contagion and the impression that the Czar

had really transferred all Jewish property to his orthodox subjects. If once this impression had been officially removed, the epidemic would have been checked. In many cases it was distinctly shown that the peasants liked the Jews, and only pillaged because they thought it had been ordered. At Bougaifka, for example, a few days after the peasants had destroyed the property of the Jews, they became contrite, and gave their Jewish neighhors 800 roubles as some compensation for the damage they themselves had caused. In the face of such a fact, it is tolerably certain that if the supposed proclamation had been energetically and officially denied the riots might never have reached the extent that they eventually did. The contagion spread as far as Saratov in early June, and thence to Astrakhan; it even reached a town near Tomsk, in Siberia, and caused an anti-Jewish riot there. The only bright spot in all this gloom was the condition of Poland, where Jews and Poles had before lived in amity. This continued till General Ignatieff directed the Governor of Poland to appoint commissions of experts to consider how the Jews should be dealt with, to which fact persons on the spot attribute the rise of anti-Jewish feeling that culminated in the Warsaw riots. But outside Poland these outbursts of popular prejudice placed a population of nearly two millions in perpetual dread of their lives and property. At times they dared not remove their clothes night or day, fearing that they might have to flee at any moment.

After the Saratov affair, on June 8, in which 30 Jews were wounded, there was a comparative lull in the more violent forms of outrage. But early in July the neighborhood of Kief and the banks of the Dnieper were once more visited by scenes which recall the horrors of the Middle Ages. On Sunday, the 12th, open rioting

took place at Penjaslaw, which was characterized by the fact that the mob were led to the attack by the sons of the merchants of the district. Commercial rivalry adding its sting to religious and social differences, the struggle was here of a more violent nature than usual, and, while 30 of the mob were wounded, no less than 200 of the Jews received serious injuries at the hands of their neighbors, and three died in consequence; 176 houses were destroyed, some by fire. At Borispol, on July 21, scenes occurred during the riots worthy of the worst days of the Commune. Women, for almost the first time, made their appearance on the scene as assailants, and added to its horrors. During the rioting they encouraged their friends on to the fight and were seen to assist them to violate the Jewesses of the village by holding down the unfortunate creatures. A curious petition afterward sent from Penjaslaw, demanding, among other things, that Jewesses should not be allowed to wear silks and satins, may throw some light on the motives of these viragoes.

The reader will be by this time satiated with the horrible crimes which have been laid before him. The imagination may now be able to take in the full meaning of the bare statement, so frequently telegraphed to the world, that anti-Jewish riots had taken place in such and such a district of Southern Russia. Suffice it then to add that the month of August saw such riots at Njezin on the 2d, at Lubny on the 8th, at Borzny on the 18th, and at Itchny on the 28th. If September was comparatively free from disorders, the cessation must be attributed rather to the needs of the harvest than to the quieting of the popular mind, for, early in October, the mob attacked the Jews of Balwierzyski, in the government of Suwalki. October 3 was the Day of Atonement, the most sacred

day of the Hebrew calendar, and the mob took the occasion to destroy the synagogue and wreck the Jewish quarter, where one Jew was killed and 20 wounded. Even as late as November, the myth of the spoliation ukase imposed upon the peasantry. On the 15th of that month, a band of 100 peasants at Czarwona, near Zitomir, pillaged the property of the Jews under that pretext. Lastly, to show the excitable state of the popular mind, the Sarah Bernhardt riots at Kief on November 18 and at Odessa on November 27 proved that a mere suspicion that the actress was a Jewess was sufficient to arouse once more the fury of the mob, and cause them again to attack the Jewish quarter of those towns.

Finally, this catalogue of horrors must be concluded by a reference to the riots at Warsaw on Christmas and the following days. The detailed events of those days, when 300 houses and 600 shops were pillaged and devastated and thousands of victims rendered homeless and reduced to beggary, are doubtless fresh in every one's memory, but certain facts must be again referred to, owing to their typical character. In the first place, the riot was clearly planned, the alarm of fire being simultaneously raised in at least two churches, and the mob being directed by men who spoke Polish with a Russian accent. The culpable neglect of the military authorities of Warsaw in refusing to make use of the 20,000 men forming its garrison, finds its counterpart in the similar behavior of the Governors of Kief, Elizabethgrad, and Odessa earlier in the year. The behavior of the police, who are described as only interfering to prevent the Jews from protecting themselves, exactly tallies with their behavior elsewhere. And, finally, the attempts that were made by telegraph officials and others to prevent the true state of the case from reaching the rest of Europe may serve to

account for the extraordinary fact that the enormities of the nine months only found the faintest echo in the press of Europe or America. Thus, while outrages on women were openly committed, the knowledge of this fact was guarded so that it might not go outside the Russian boundary.

The outrages recounted in the preceding pages, though, no doubt, the most imoprtant, are far from including all the similar events that occurred during the year 1881. They have been selected from a list of over 160 towns and villages in which cases of riot, rapine, murder, and spoliation have been known to occur during the last nine months of 1881. Out of these information was collected from about 45 towns and villages in Southern Russia. In these alone are reported 23 murders of men, women and children, 17 deaths caused by violation, and no fewer than 225 cases of outrages of Jewesses.

Such have been the horrors that throughout the past year have assailed the 3,000,000 Israelites who inhabit Russia. Nor is there any indication that the atrocities will cease in succeeding years, unless the Russian Government will intervene in the sacred cause of civilization and humanity.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

Besides appealing to the blind passions of the mob, the Jew-haters of Russia have resorted to more systematic efforts to harass the hapless Israelites. The Russian Moujik has a method almost peculiar to himself of expressing his rage and hatred. Whenever the fever point of excitement is reached arson is usually the direction in

which it overflows. So well is this recognized in Russia that the peasants have a technical name for the deliberate firing of towns—the "red cock" is said to crow. During the year 1881 this method of revenge was resorted to

PREPARING FOR CHURCH INSPECTION.

on a large scale against the Jews of Russia, especially in the West. By the end of June the "red cock" had crowed over 15 towns in Western Russia, including Mohilew, containing 25,000 inhabitants, Witebsk, with 23,-

000, and Slonim, with 20,000, as well as smaller towns like Wolcowysk, Scherwondt, Augustowo, Nowo-Gucdek, Ponovicz, and Lipsk. Many thousands of Jews were rendered homeless by this means, and on July 3d 6,000 Jews lost their homes by fire at Minsk, 4,800 being deprived of every means of subsistence at the same time. The town of Pinsk, in the same province, suffered a like fate. And shortly afterward a conflagration took place at Koretz, in Wolhynia, in which 30 lives were lost and 5,000 souls left without a home. Every week added to the number of fires in towns inhabited by Jews till, by the end of September, the list extended to 41 towns. This probably involved the loss of homes to 20,000 Jews.

To the mass of homeless and penniless creatures in Southern Russia must be added the many victims of pillage. The violence of the mobs often wrecked whole streets of houses as completely as any fire, and it is known that 2,000 were thus rendered homeless at Kief, 1,600 at Smielo, 1,000 at Konotop, 600 at Ouehow, and 300 at Aluchoff. The value of property destroyed in the south has been reckoned to reach $80,000,000.

It is possible that an aggregate of 100,000 Jewish families has thus been reduced to poverty. The ranks of the ruined were increased by those who dared not apply for their just debts, while in many cases the peasantry deliberately "boycotted" the Jews. It must be further remembered that in several places the Jews anticipated riots by evacuating their homes; thus, near Perejaslay, after the riot at that place, no fewer than 17 villages in the neighborhood were deserted by the Jews, and the same, doubtless, took place in other localities. Men fled from the villages in which they had resided all their lives. Even after the events of Keiw the Jews of the

neighborhood, fearing the spread of disorder, crowded, at the rate of 100 families a day, into the town which had so lately shown itself hostile. Others fled toward the borders, and during the summer months a camp of refugees in the open air at Podwoloczyska contained no less than 1,500 souls, including children of the tenderest age. A few who still possessed some means attempted to flee across the frontier, but many were stopped. Of 5,000 who managed to reach Brody, on the Austrian border, in a perfectly helpless state, 2,000 remained there huddled in cellars for nearly one month.

Meanwhile, the municipalities, with the connivance of the local governments, took every means in their power to add to the misery of the situation. With rough logic they argued that, as these riots were directed against the Jews, if there had been no Jews, there would have been no riots. They accordingly petitioned the governors of their provinces to issue orders for the expulsion of the Jews from towns in which they had no legal right of domicile. The Jews of Russia are only allowed to reside in 28 of its provinces, often only in certain towns, and the number of permits to reside is, at least theoretically, limited. For the last 20 years, however, these barbarous laws have been somewhat allowed to fall into desuetude, and many Jews have ventured beyond the narrow limits assigned to them. Leaving aside the general question, it was clearly a most heartless act to add to the miseries of the Jewish population at the moment when the mob were eagerly scanning the disposition of the authorities to discover to what lengths they might proceed with impunity. Whatever be the legality of the measure, the occasion for introducing its rigorous enforcement was inhumanly inopportune, and lays the corporations who enforced it open to a charge of complicity with the more lawless per-

secutors of the Jews. At Kief, for example, even before the excitement had entirely subsided, the governor ordered a stringent scrutiny of the right of domicile among the Jews of that town. By July 29 the strict enforcement of these harsh regulations had resulted in the expulsion of 4,000 Jews, and quite recently new rules have been issued in Kief, as well as Odessa, still further limiting the number of Jews capable of residing in either city. At Liebenthal, near Odessa, the municipality, of course with the permission of the Governor of Odessa, expelled from fifteen to twenty Jewish families, and imposed a fine of fifty roubles upon any one harboring a Jew for a single night. From Podolsk 100 families were expelled, while whole regions of Podolia have been relentlessly cleared of the Jews; the towns of Kromonitz, Dubno, Constantinow, Vladimir, and Wolinsk, being the principal offenders. More to the east the town of Charkooff expelled Jews at the beginning of August.

At Orel, in the Government of that name, the expulsion has recently taken place on a large scale, and under peculiarly cruel circumstances. In that town 900 families of Jews, numbering 5,000 souls, have hitherto dwelt in peace and good will with their neighbors. Soon after the outbreak of the disturbances, the Governor of Orel gave orders that all Jews must quit its bounds by September 1. When that day arrived a further grace was allowed them till October 25, and on the latter day the Jewish congregation met for the last time in the synagogue, and, after tearful prayers, removed the sacred scrolls and left in mournful procession the town that had been their home. Nearly 400 of them, however, did not even possess the means of departure, and ventured to remain, only to be thrust out by the police into the snow on the following night. In other places, where no legal

JEWISH SYNAGOGUE AT OREL.

objection could be taken to the domicile of the Jews, petitions were sent by the authorities requesting the imposition of all sorts of restrictions. They desired to restrict Jewish commerce in grain, and to limit the sending of Jewish children to the higher gymnasia and universities, thus stultifying their own complaints as to the want of culture among the Jews. Many local commissions would prevent the Jews from holding "harandas," erroneously described as "dram-shops," but really general stores, at which wine and spirits are sold. I have already referred to the Perejaslav petition, that Jewesses be not allowed to wear silks and satins. These expulsions and petitions have formed the sole answer which the town councils of Russia have given to the Jewish question.

Meanwhile, what has been done in this emergency? It is by no means difficult to suggest what could and should have been done from the first appearance of anti-Jewish feeling in the South. If orders had been given and published that every Governor-General should supply Jewish communities with a guard on application from the Rabbi and the elders of the community; if an edict had been passed rendering all damage to Jewish property by riots chargeable to the communal rates of the town or village; if, above all, a proclamation had been issued declaring that all Jewish subjects were as much entitled to protection of life and property as their orthodox fellow-citizens, and denying the existence of any ukase purporting to "convey" their property, it is safe to assert that the disorders would not have spread far, and certainly would not have lasted long. Instead of this, at Kief instructions were issued that the military should not be called out till the last extremity.

As early as May 23 the Czar, having been appealed to

by a deputation of the Jews of St. Petersburg, headed by Baron Gunzburg, expressed his intention of dealing with the evil. Accordingly, Count Kutaissow was despatched to the South to make inquiries. He returned, it would seem, with the answer that inquiries were still further necessary. General Ignatieff now took the opportunity to introduce a system by which the Zemstras, or Provincial Assemblies, might be superseded by local committees of experts on this special subject, and on September 3 the following rescript was issued:

"For some time the Government has given its attention to the Jews, and to their relations to the rest of the inhabitants of the Empire, with the view of ascertaining the sad condition of the Christian inhabitants, brought about by the conduct of the Jews in business matters.

"For the last twenty years the Government has endeavored, in various ways, to bring the Jews near to its other inhabitants, and has given them almost equal rights with the indigenous population. The movements, however, against the Jews, which began last spring in the south of Russia, and extended to Central Russia, prove incontestably that all its endeavors have been of no avail, and that ill-feeling prevails now as much as ever between the Jewish and the Christian inhabitants of those parts. Now, the proceedings at the trial of those charged with rioting and other evidence bear witness to the fact that the main cause of those movements and riots—to which the Russians, as a nation, are strangers—was but a commercial one, and is as follows:—

"'During the last twenty years the Jews have gradually possessed themselves of not only every trade and business in all its branches, but also of a great part of the land by buying or farming it. With few exceptions they have, as a body, devoted their attention not to

enriching or benefiting the country, but to defrauding, by their wiles, its inhabitants, and particularly its poor inhabitants. This conduct of theirs has called forth protests on the part of the people, as manifested in acts of violence and robbery. The Government, while on the one hand doing its best to put down the disturbances and to deliver the Jews from oppression and slaughter, have also, on the other hand, thought it a matter of urgency and justice to adopt stringent measures in order to put an end to the oppression practiced by the Jews on the inhabitants and to free the country from their malpractices, which were, as it is known, the cause of the agitation.'

"With this view it has appointed commissions (in all the towns inhabited by Jews), whose duty it is to inquire into the following matters:—

"1. What are the trades of the Jews which are injurious to the inhabitants of the place?

"2. What makes it impracticable to put into force the former laws limiting the rights of the Jews in the matter of buying and farming land, the trade in intoxicants, and usury?

"3. How can those laws be altered so that they shall no longer be enabled to evade them, or what new laws are required to stop their pernicious conduct in business?

"4. Give (besides the answers to the foregoing suggestions) the following additional information: (*a*) On the usury practiced by the Jews in their dealings with Christians, in cities, towns and villages; (*b*) the number of public houses kept by Jews in their own name, or in that of a Christian; (*c*) the number of persons in service with Jews or under their control; (*d*) the extent (acreage) of the land in their possession, by buying or farming; (*e*) the number of Jewish agriculturists.

"In addition to the above-named information to be supplied, every commission is empowered to report on such conduct and action of the Jews as may have a local interest and importance, and to submit the same to the Ministry."

That, after the events of May, June and July, any person in authority in Russia should in August have been thinking of aught else but the protection of Jewish lives and the honor of Jewish women, is the first surprise that meets us in this remarkable document. But that no word of reprimand should be addressed to those who had indulged in such misdeeds is a severer surprise still, the only allusion to the whole catalogue of horrors being couched in the half-apologetic allusion to "protests" that have taken so deplorable a form. It is certain that the direct cause of the objection of the Russians to their Jewish fellow-citizens is the natural result of the Russian laws, which restrict their rights and mark them off from the rest of the nation. It is the lesson taught by all experience that the only solution of the Jewish question is the granting of full equality. It is absolutely certain that the whole body of the Jews, forming one-eighth of the population amid which they dwell, cannot be accused of "exploitation," or "usury," as imputed by the rescript, the fact being that the chief industries of Russia are in the hands of the thrifty and hard-working Jews. Again, objection to innkeeping by Jews is clearly a gross injustice, seeing that statistics show drunkenness to be more prevalent in provinces where Jews do not reside. But, waiving all this, surely the poor women who had been violated, the little children who had been murdered, the farmers who had been robbed of their cattle and implements, could not be accused of these charges, and it was accordingly the refinement of cruelty to

issue this document, teeming with animus against the Jews, at a time when the passions of the mob had been raised against all Jews, without distinction of person, occupation, age or sex. The Jewish question at the present moment is not how the Jews should be prevented from competing with the Russians in certain trades, but whether the lives of three millions and a half of Jews shall be left at the mercy of the passions of the mob. A document like this, far from helping to solve the question, rather adds to its complexity by showing clearly to the populace that the authorities share their prejudices. The appointments to commissions showed the same bias; at the head of the Kief Commission was placed General Drudkoff, the Governor of Kief, who initated the proceedings of the first meeting by declaring, "Either I or the Jews must go." On another Commission was placed M. Chegarym, whose only claim to be considered an expert on the Jewish question was that he had written a pamphlet, entitled "The Annihilation of the Jews."

At Odessa the first Commission was dismissed because it had recommended the only true solution of the questions put by the Minister of the Interior, the granting to the Jews fully equality of rights and equal liberty of settlement with their fellow-citizens of other creeds. A second Commission was thereupon appointed, with views more in consonance with the spirit of the rescript. When the Governor of Warsaw, Count Albedinski, was ordered to publish the circular he at first refused, saying that Jews and Poles had always lived on such friendly terms that no Commission was necessary. He was, however, forced to publish the rescript, and competent observers attribute the rise of anti-Semitic feeling in Warsaw mainly to this publication.

These acts and the tone of the circular itself made clear

to the Commissions what was expected of them. They have accordingly made recommendations which will, if adopted, bring back all the horrors of the Middles Ages on the unfortunate Jews of Russia. Thus, among other proposals, they have advised that Jews should not be allowed to build synagogues or establish schools and orphan asylums; that they should not be permitted to reside in villages, nor own houses or landed property; that Jews should not lease factories or sell spirituous liquors or be apothecaries. Besides this, it is rumored that it is intended to restrict still further the right of domicile, and to allow no Jew to reside within eighty miles of the borders. In short, it seems to be the intention to make Russia an impossible home for the Jews, or perhaps even to doom them to complete extinction. The Russo-Jewish question may, therefore, be summed up in these words: Are three and a half millions of human beings to perish because they are Jews?

CHAPTER XXXIV.

The Jews of Russia are chiefly confined to the Southern portion of the country and to Poland, which latter province contains nearly one-half the entire Semitic population. It is not in all sections that bitter prejudices prevail against them; in fact they generally live harmoniously with the Poles. In the Caucasus, though not regarded with any special affiliation, they are certainly not hated or envied with that intense feeling which has developed against them in other provinces of the Empire. The influence of Mussulmans for so many years in the Caucasian district, and the efficient measures taken by

them to enforce the "Truce of God" among the votaries of different religions, have had the effect of establishing and maintaining at least a partially considerate forbearance toward the Jews whose thrift here, as elsewhere, has given them control of the business of the district. Wherever Jews come in contact with Turks, as in the Caucasus, they usually prosper without exciting any prejudice; this may be accounted for, however, by the implacable hostility which exists between Christians and Mussulmans, in which Jew and Turk may be regarded as common enemies of the cross.

But the most singular features connected with Jewish persecutions are found in and about Odessa, where the riots have been appalling in deep villainy and heartless cruelties. These singular features are found in the fact that Odessa, with a population of 200,000, is so cosmopolitian as to be Anti-Russian; the French are so numerous that they have stamped their impress upon the city; in fact have Frenchified it; the Russian tongue is rarely spoken in Odessa, hardly so much as the Turk, while among the upper class French and Italian are alone used. We also observe the lack of Russian influence in the absence of Greek churches, and, in short, there is abundant evidence that the Russ people are despised in Odessa. Yet, the Jews are persecuted here with a severity equal to that which distinguished the rioters at Kief or Minsk. The cause is found, not in religious intolerance nor in race prejudices, but in that vicious desire which develops under conditions identical with those which are so frequently found in Russia—the love for plunder when incited thereto by a mob. It is like shouting "mad-dog" at some poor canine, the cry being immediately taken up by every person until the dog is killed. The Jews are rich, but their defensive strength is poor, they therefore,

become objects for spoliation, and whether the spoilsman be Russian, Frenchman, Spaniard or Englishman, if the occasion be flattering, the cry of "Jew," "Christ-killer," etc., will be just as loud against them.

The trade of Odessa is in the hands of Polish Jews, who are most thoroughly despised by the illiterate Russ. Many of these Israelites are in possession of large tracts of land in the Odessa district, which they cause to be cultivated for their own account, and thus they enjoy to a large extent a monopoly of the produce exports, while they are both land owners and merchants. Their wealth stirs up against them the hatred of all Russia, which hatred extends to every officer of the Government and also to the subjects of other nationalities doing business in Russia.

The Jews are charged with the most heinous offenses, but the charges are vague, and reducible to no positive evidence. "They make their money by the most infamous practices," it is said; "they lend money at outrageously high rates of interest, and do not keep their own counting houses or shops, but prowl about the country like wolves, seeking the peasants they may devour, selling them liquor to encourage their drunken propensities, taking advantage of their distress to wrest from them deeds of mortgage, and urging them on the road of ruin, so as ultimately to drive them out of their homes and lands."

All this is tantamount to saying that the Jews are usurers; then the question arises, What are the provisions of the Russian law with respect to usury, whether practiced by Jew or Gentile? Money is no more than an article of trade on which Russians and Hebrews place a like estimate; there is no Russian shopkeeper who will not ask two or more times the value of an article if he thinks his customer can be induced to pay it, so there is

no legal reason why the Jews should not follow the example thus set before them.

My experience convinces me that nowhere under the ethereal canopy is there another nation that can equal Russia for swindlers. I must here relate an incident told me while on my voyage up the Baltic Sea to St. Petersburg. Among our passengers was an Irish gentleman who had, for nearly twenty years, been running a large cotton mill in Yaraslof, Russia. He had been on a visit to Ireland and was now returning to Yaraslof, where he made his home. Said he: "The person who goes to Russia without understanding the ways of the country will undoubtedly be boldly swindled. Directly after first going to Yaraslof I purchased a pair of felt boots for the sum of twelve roubles, which I thought very cheap. Soon after making the purchase I showed the boots to a gentleman who was an old resident of Russia, but who was an Englishman with whom I was going into business; I held up the boots in an admiring manner and commented upon the extraordinary bargain which I had made. But instead of uniting in my opinion, the Englishman laughed at me for being 'taken in,' as he expressed it, and then declared he could buy a pair exactly like mine, and at the same place where my purchase was made, for five roubles. Excitedly I offered to wager him a basket of the finest wine to be obtained in Yaraslof, that he could not. He accepted my wager, for which I was very glad, for I felt certain to win. At his request we went down to the store where I had bought the boots, and going in he enquired the price of a pair like those I had; the shopkeeper asked him *fifteen roubles*. Instantly I clapped my hands in high glee and called on him to pay the bet. But, said he, 'give me a little time and I'll buy the boots for five roubles.' He began to abuse the shop-

keeper in the most awful manner, calling him swindler, thief, extortioner, etc. All these epithets did not disturb the good humor of the shopkeeper, who finally consented to let the boots go for twelve roubles. My friend turned abruptly upon his heel and with many imprecations went out of the shop, while I laughed and urged him to pay the bet. We walked down the street a little way and then returning came back by the shop again. Seeing us go by, the shopkeeper ran out to my friend and telling him a long story about how much the boots cost, he offered them for ten roubles. My friend only gave him another cursing and then went on; returning in a few minutes, we again walked by the shop, and again the merchant ran out beseeching my friend to buy, but still there was no trade, so that for the third time we parted from the shopkeeper, who had, however, offered the boots for seven roubles. I now began to be frightened, yet I could hardly think that the man would make a further reduction of two roubles. After staying away nearly one hour, for the fourth time we passed. The merchant, who, as before, ran out, caught hold of my friend and began to argue with him. The Englishman manifested great umbrage and threatened to strike the shopkeeper for interfering with him so many times, when at the beginning he declared he would not give more than five roubles for the boots. After considerable quarreling the shopkeeper at length accepted the original offer, and of course I had to pay for the wine."

This Jewish manner of doing business is common among all Russian merchants, so that generally speaking any article may be purchased from them for about one-third the price which they first ask.

Now, if we even mistrusted the repeated assertions made throughout Russia that Government agents were

sent among the populace to stir up their evil passions, to justify and almost provoke their violence by a reference to the Emperor's acts and wishes; even if we disbelieve the statements that men high in authority, civil or military governors, refused to interpose between the murderers and their victims, "not wishing to disturb their soldiers for a pack of Jews;" even if we deemed it impossible that men and officers belonging to the army or the police, either remained passive spectators of the worst outrages, or became participators in them; even if we make abstraction from all this, yet it would be impossible to find words sufficiently severe to stigmatize the iniquitious proclamation, or "Rescript," of September 3d, in which, instead of denouncing the atrocities of the persecutors of the Jews, the Government takes the opportunity of enumerating the offences of the Jews themselves; thus palliating, if not actually sanctioning, any excesses that may be committed against them, and almost inciting the populace to run amuck them: "not to nail the Jew's ear to the pump."

And yet, after all, what are the alleged offences of the Jews?

"They have possessed themselves not only of every trade and business in all its branches, but also of great part of the land, by buying and farming it."

"They have defrauded, by their wiles, the inhabitants, and particularly the poor people."

But the question is, or should be: "Have the Jews broken the laws?" "Do the laws allow either Jew or Christian to carry on illicit trades or criminal business?"

If the Jews have acted within the law they should have lawful protection. If their offences were of a nature not foreseen by the existing law, then it should be amended. But in any case the first duty of the Gov-

ernment should have been to uphold the law against the persecuting populace, about whose unlawful proceedings there could be no doubt whatever; the gravest error or crime that can, in a civilized country, be laid to the charge

A TYPICAL RUSSIAN JEW.

of a Government being that of allowing its subjects to take the law into their own hands.

With respect to the main offences imputed to the Jews, that of being usurious money lenders, and keeping dram-shops, I must repeat that the fault is not so much of the Jews' greed and knavery as of the Christians' improvi-

dence and intemperance. The peasants of Northern Russia, though there be no Jews among them, are no less addicted to drunkenness, and no less eaten up by debts and mortgages, than peasants of the Southern and Western districts; for there are—both North and South—plenty of Christians ready to lend money on usury and to keep dram-shops.

There is nothing more certain than that the Jew, the peddling Jew, has no chance of thriving, except among people whom ignorance and unthrift deliver into his hands as easy victims.

It is not by banishing or exterminating the Jews that Russia can hope to save her poor peasants, but by trying what education may do toward curing a people (to whom no one can deny many fine qualities) of those drunken, thriftless, and vagrant habits which have always been their besetting sins. There was a time when Jews had a monopoly of the money business in Europe, when kings and princes drew the teeth from the Hebrew's jaws to get at the ducats in his purse. What was the result? The Italians, Lombards and Tuscans set up in competition. They ennobled money lending by creating banking houses. They thus beat the Jew with his own weapon, and their names still live in *Lombard street* and *Boulevard des Italiens;* and men still write L. s. d. instead of P. s. p. This is a good lesson for the Russian and German Governments to study.

CHAPTER XXXV.

I have given, in as succinct form as possible, a description of Russian life in all its phases, as I found it. My trip through that country, made rather as an investigator than tourist, was delightfully pleasant and profitable; not that I did not encounter serious difficulties or meet with annoying obstacles, for it was my lot to suffer many times from both, but all the unpleasant episodes and positions which jeopardized my safety only served to make the result, as a whole, more enjoyable. I have written of Russia and Siberia at times both facetiously and solemnly, but always with frankness, and, so far as my judgment permitted, truthfully. It is most difficult to write of a country (covering the scope which I have undertaken in this work) while ignorant of the language used by its people, because information received through interpreters must always have about it the suspicion which usually attaches to second-hand stories. But I have exercised much care and discrimination, so that I have no hesitation in reaffirming and declaring the truth of every statement herein made.

Russia is the most remarkable as well as the largest nation on the earth; her history is wonderful, because it recounts so many wars with barbaric hordes; claiming to be a great civilized power, yet her civilization is of a doubtful character; nor can we review the influences by which she is surrounded and expect Russia to be more progressive with the spirit of education and that uplifting force of science which dazzles all creation with intelligence; to the south she has Turkey, with which nation Russia has become partially amalgamated in spirit by reason of the bitter wars that have waged between them;

on the southeast is Persia and the Caucasus, and upon the east are the wild tribes of Siberia and contiguous countries. With these ferocious races Russia has been at war since she became a nation, and the contests have ever been conducted upon barbaric principles. Visitors to the museum at St. Petersburg will not fail to see preserved in jars of alcohol, and mounted in glass cases, several heads that have been struck off by imperial orders, from the bodies of traitors or enemies to Russia. These ghastly trophies are actually paraded in the capital as an exhibition of Muscovite valor, but what better example of barbarism can be found than they afford; or what better proof do we require to establish the assertion that Russia is a barbaric nation in the swaddling clothes of civilization?

The Government of Russia is fashioned after unenlightened Suzerainties, to be found nowhere except in Pagan countries. The word Czar comes from Cæsar, but even the great power of Cæsar could not compare with that now exercised by Russia's ruler. Not only is the Czar exalted above all temporal attributes, but his name must perforce be mentioned with that awesome regard which the faithful Moujik pays to God. No country has so much law as Russia, yet the first sentence in her code is this: "The Czar is above all law." It does not even say "Czar, by the grace of God," as they do in England, because, like the Pope of Rome, Russia's sovereign is both a temporal and spiritual ruler, if not equal to God, at least one of His chief counselors. This is all barbarism, which is inversely developed into more inordinate Paganism by a prohibition of secular freedom and the exaltation of a particular creed whose very essence is ignorance and superstition.

Shackled by faith in ancient ceremonials, bound fast

by gyves of church discipline, divested of the robes of intelligence, confined in the damp, foul, pestilential atmosphere of slavery to rulership, blinded by fanatical prejudices and worse than fanatical religion, hedged about with intolerance, poverty-stricken with a debt created by church indulgences, utterly lacking in homogeneity, injustice and corruption permeating every department of the Government, how shall Russia raise herself from under such grievous burdens and set her eyes toward a civilization such as other Christian nations enjoy?

I am sorry to say it, but the fact is so apparent that none may misconstrue the events now taking place—the future of Russia is in Nihilism; if this bloody power does not purge the nation and give it a new growth, then we cannot predict any further than the dismemberment of the Empire and its gradual absorption into other powers. Civilization is spreading rapidly eastward, it cannot stop or go around Russia, and whether with bayonet or psalmbook the march will be made through every part of the Czar's dominions; resistance will be like a shadow fighting the storms, only that to resist as a nation will be to destroy every vestige of Muscovite Imperialism and leave her as another Babylon; or, to use a more moderate illustration, like Poland, that has been so voraciously swallowed and digested by her.

The Nihilists, aside from their inchoate condition and lack of objective cohesion that concentrates revolutionary parties under acknowledged leadership, are prompted by policies and apprehensions at strange variance with the object they ostensibly have in view. In this observation I have reference to that prime Nihilistic faction which aims at liberalism and a radical reformation of the Government, which shall have some elements of democracy in

it. They confidently believe that these reforms can be obtained through a process of terrorization, particularly by assassination. That this is a fallacy is proved by the repeated failures which have followed its adoption in nearly every country of both hemispheres since history began to record the deeds of men.

The first logical step toward securing enlarged liber ties to the people of Russia, is education of the masses; not alone education in science, but in politics as well, a mind development that will subvert the Greek Church, which is a ban of barbarism almost as rank and more debasing than Shamanism. To-day the peasantry of Russia are not prepared for liberty, which is to them no more than a jewel before swine; so long as the potentiality of the Church continues absorbing a revenue doubly in excess of governmental expenditures, and imposing a yoke of servitude upon its subjects more galling than ever a Romish Pope devised, so long must Russians suffer. Abuses of the aristocracy and imperialism are made possible by the Church, whose dictatorial mandates are written to publish the Czar's pleasure and to set up a fear of the devil for the coercion of those who might otherwise think for themselves.

Liberalize the Church and a liberalization of the Government would be certain to follow. The Greek Church forbids its subjects thinking, while the Government denies its subjects the exercise of a voice in public affairs; that power which oppresses the mind is ten-fold more injurious than that which prescribes the acts of men; hence, I repeat, the first important step toward reforming Russia must be directed to the curtailment of the Church power and influence, so that her peasantry may be free from superstitions and be made to understand that they have a mind which God intended they should use for themselves.

But the obstacles which now so seriously hinder Russia's advancement are no greater perhaps than those that have obstructed civilization in all other countries; hence, we cannot resist the belief that she, too, will advance by gradual steps and finally become established as a free and fully enlightened government. If we may look forward to the time when Russia shall develop into a republic, or even a limited monarchy, we may behold in her not only a greater power than now, but we may also observe her growth into a government absolutely peerless, and more nearly in competition with the United States than any other nation ever can be. Already, with all of Russia's drawbacks, she contests with America in agricultural production and in feeding foreign nations, and were her possible resources fully developed by improved machinery and well-applied industry, she would produce enough wheat, corn, potatoes, rye, barley, etc., to shut our cereals entirely out of the European market. The revolution in Russia means not only the downfall of autocracy and the breaking up of those customs which aggrandize a few by the impoverishment of many, but it also means, though indefinite and doubtful under Nihilistic policy, an enforced recognition of agriculture as the prime factor in national existence; it means encouragement to industry of every character and the subversion of every element in the Government that is hurtful to the masses.

Thousands of Russians have long despaired of reforms being granted that would enlarge their liberties, and for the first time in the history of that country there is a considerable emigration from Russia, not an inconsiderable part of the hegira being directed toward America. I have always considered it an ill-advised policy to throw out flattering invitations to all dissatisfied

foreigners to make their homes with us, but since the policy is in active operation I must say that no class of immigrants would be more valuable to America than Russians; they are patient, honest, and, when put upon their resources, very industrious; no people are less addicted to disturbance, their amiable qualities, indeed, being almost phenomenal. Raised in subjection to an aristocracy, the peasantry seem to expect the treatment of slaves; they will submit to any indignity from those whom they regard their superiors, and their confidence is easily gained; they are faithful to any trust, and considered in all their peculiarities they are the most humble, frugal and deserving people on the earth. Placed upon any of our Western prairies the Russians would thrive greatly, though in their own country, where land is almost superabundant, they make little progress and manifest a shiftlessness that is most reprehensible. But this is due to causes I have already explained in describing the facts and results of serf manumission. Wherever a Russian possesses absolute proprietary interests he invariably prospers, nor does he exhibit any disposition to idleness.

Though Russia may, and doubtless soon will become the most dangerous competitor we can ever have, yet America cannot help feeling a friendly interest in her prosperity; we cannot afford to forget the kind offices extended us by Russia in the most distressing era of our national life. The two Alexanders have always been our friends, and today the subjects of no other nation are so warmly welcomed in the Empire and so considerately treated by all Russians as are those of America. To say "I am an American," in St. Petersburg, is almost like the open sesame of Ali Baba; it is enough, and to all such Russia extends a most hospitable welcome.

It has been in no contentious or prejudiced spirit that I have written of Russia as semi-barbaric; so far from using the term as one of reproach I have employed it rather to excuse the manifest faults of the Empire, the faults of the son as seen in the father, the faults of training, which are as natural and similar as the blood of consanguinity.

The growth of Russia toward liberalism is slow, but it is, nevertheless, apparent. Her greatest scientists, poets, philosophers, are of the present century; her greatest newspapers and manufactories are of to-day; her finest churches were built many, many years ago, and her priesthood has lost the respect of the masses. Are not these gratifying evidences of improvement?

These were my reflections while in Russia, which have been strengthened by a further consideration of the subject since, but while thinking of Russia's future I cannot help feeling sympathy for poor Poland, whose subjugation is Russia's greatest disgrace. Suffering Poland! distress has been the price of her patriotism, and though she struggled with a bravery almost unparalled yet her struggles were like those of Spartacus and the heroic Thracians, for now she lies as one dead at the feet of liberty.

Before leaving Warsaw I remembered my promise made to the exile in his lonely hut near Yeniseisk, and determined to fulfil it. I therefore persuaded the managers of the Hotel Victoria to address a letter, in Russian, to the exile's wife at Micahow, and to fill it with many endearing words, which I thought would convey the feelings of the exile toward one whom I was sure he still loved devotedly. Nothing could have afforded me more pleasure than to have witnessed the effect produced by this letter, if it was received by the wife: but as my

curiosity in this direction must ever remain unsatisfied, I will still take delight in thinking of the happiness I caused the poor exile and the possible pleasure my act may have given his wife.

Having spent nearly one week in Warsaw, and gathered all the information available for my purposes, I prepared to leave for London by way of Vienna and Paris. Before departing, in company with a guide, I went to an exchange office in Warsaw to convert my Russian money into Austrian florins. As all the exchange dealers in the place are Jews, I of course went into the Israelitish quarters and was conducted to what my guide declared was the largest and most reliable broker in Warsaw. If the guide had omitted to tell me this, I would certainly have inclined to the belief that this same broker was a lean and hungry apothecary; his place was shabby in the extreme; there was a rickety counter behind which, on the grimy walls, were shelves stored with phials and old greasy packages; an old Jew, of marked features, covered up in a long overcoat and with an immense muffler around his neck, sat on a stool waiting for customers. He appeared very glad when we entered, evidently in anticipation of a few copecks, and bowed so graciously that he quite impressed me, but I could only return his salutation by a nod of the head and by smiling familiarly. My guide did all the talking, and effected an exchange of one hundred roubles, the rest of my money being in English pound notes. When we got back to the hotel I made a calculation of what I should have received in the exchange and found that the sagacious and condescending old fellow had discounted me so that I was one florin short. I was so well satisfied that the broker had knowingly swindled me that, with the guide, I immediately returned and had my interpreter explain the

shortage; whereupon, without any discussion of the matter, the Jew gave me another florin, with a look which plainly told that he knew it all the time, and had only experimented to see if I would find it out.

The train service between Warsaw and Vienna is excellent, much better than I found it in any other part of the continent. The sleeping cars are made into compartments large enough to accommodate only two persons, and since travel between the two cities is not usually great, a compartment to one's self is easily obtained without extra cost. These accommodations are even more exclusive than the staterooms in Pullman sleepers, while the upholstery is much more luxurious. My trip down to Vienna was a very pleasant one, with two exceptions: about one o'clock at night I was rudely awakened by a man who pounded viciously at the door of my compartment, and when I let him in his actions and speech were such that I thought he was a train-robber. He spoke Russian, and of course I had to rely on his gestures. After thumping around for some time, he grabbed my valise and began to wrench at it until I was on the point of giving him the bounce or being bounced myself, when the sleeping-car conductor made his appearance, and, as he spoke German, I was soon made acquainted with the fact that we had arrived at Granitza, on the Russian frontier, where the passport examiner inspected the papers of all persons leaving Russia. I got out my passport, to which was attached, by large red seals, my Siberian *podorojna*, and also a special order from the Russian Government requesting all officers to facilitate my purposes and to give me any aid I might require. Seeing these special privilege papers, the examining officer took off his hat to me as though he had just discovered that I was a prince or king in undress, and gave me a five-

minute speech of apology. I now tumbled into bed and was not long in reaching a sound sleep again, but at three, A. M., I was frightened out of my slumber by another kicking at my stateroom door and a yelling all along the line. Great guns! I thought, are we attacked by brigands, thrown off a bridge, or in a dreadful smash-up?

"*Zollbeamte!*" (Custom-officer,) cried a voice at the door.

"Well, you need not make such an outrageous racket about it, if you are," I answered. "I have nothing dutiable, so pass on to the next customer."

This made the Austrian custom officer red-hot, so to speak, for I now understood that we had passed out of Russia and were at Shtchakova, the first station in Austria, and levity before an Austrian is worse than a red flag in France. He pounded with increased gusto until I opened the door and showed him a small satchel filled with manuscripts and second-hand books. At sight of these he gave me a fierce look and then pasted a double eagle on my bag and shot out of the room as though he had lost a great deal of precious time with me. Thus I left Russia and entered new dominions.

The matter is foreign to my subject, but as it is a part of my experience, I wish to say that the trip from Vienna to Paris is about as uncomfortable as stupidity can make it. I engaged a sleeping-car berth of the International Wagon Lits, and was assigned to a small compartment in which there were already three others. The room was so small that only two persons could sit in it at the same time, so we had to take turns in standing in the passage-way. At Stuttgart, which is about intermediate between Vienna and Paris, a common link coupling, which connected our sleeper with the train, broke, and most astonishing to relate, the sleeping-car was abandoned, because

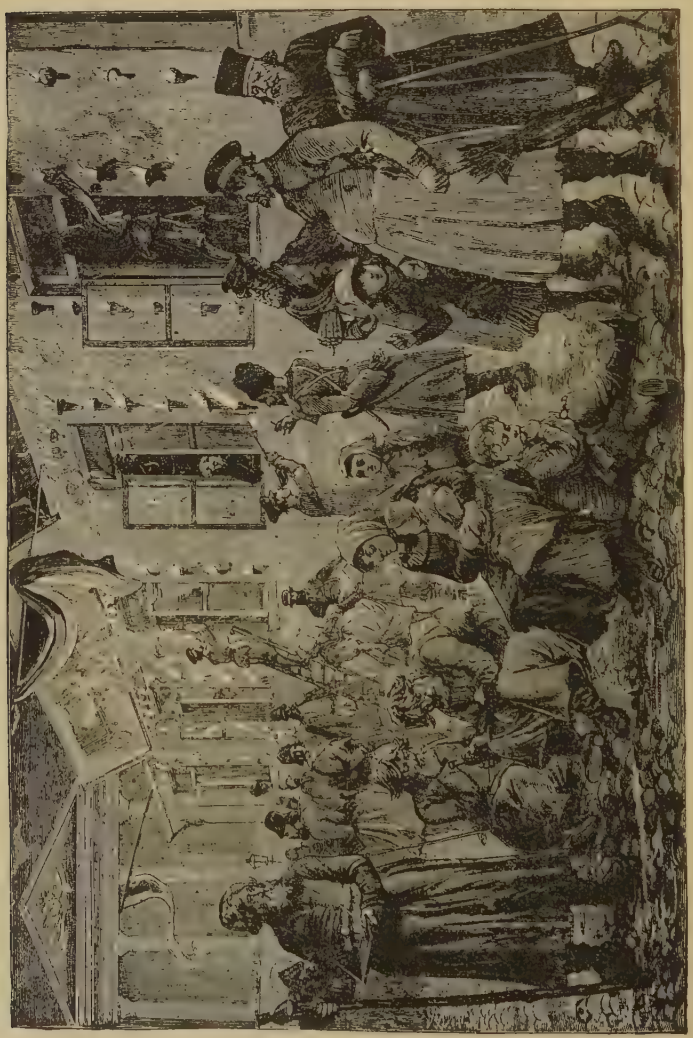
a new link was not obtainable. Thence we rode into Paris in a third-class car, because there was no room in the others. This trip was almost as harassing as my journey from Ekaterineburg to Irkoutsk, but it taught me why people go to Europe to spend their summers; first, because it is thought to be fashionable; and second, because the accommodations of every character throughout the continent are so execrable, if not horrible, that after spending a few weeks in Europe it is like stepping out of the back door of hades into the front parlor of heaven to get back to America again; it teaches us how to appreciate our own country.

THE CORONATION—STATE PROCESSION TO THE KREMLIN PALACE.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

The coronation of Alexander III. as the successor of Alexander II. was an event looked forward to with grave anticipation for more than two years. Russia had so long struggled in the throes of a mighty and crafty rebellion; her revenues were so meagre compared with her expenses; the tax upon her energies and vital resources—agriculture—were so burdensome; her relations with neighboring powers were so precarious, and withal her rulers were so bitterly hated, that since the tragic death of Alexander II. all the world has daily expected a new revolutionary outbreak culminating in the assassination of the succeeding sovereign. But the fears of Russia's populace were small in comparison with the dread in which the Czar has himself lived; isolated almost from the world, by walls of granite and cordons of fierce Cossacks, he yet saw in every shadow the grim visage of an avenger; his very heart was haunted and spectres of assassination floated in upon him borne by the incense of flowers, or the birds of wing that fluttered and chirruped in the bowers by his window. His intercourse was confined to the one trusted counsellor, Tolstoi, who brought the miserable Czar news concerning his empire. What a night of terror was the first two years of the new Czar's life, and even now the dawn has not yet appeared.

When Alexander III. took up the crown that fell from his father's pallid brow, and amid the applause of the few who were permitted to witness the ceremony, placed



PREPARING TO ILLUMINATE MOSCOW IN HONOR OF THE CORONATION.

it upon his own head, he felt its pressure like a band of fire, and to obtain relief he divested himself of it by going into secret retirement. He would no doubt have fain remained in his almost impregnable hermitage at Peterhoff, but the law was inexorable, the traditions of his inheritance too sacred to admit of its non-observance. Both demanded that he be crowned and thereby married to the holy church as a defender of the faith, as well as ruler of his subjects. His sovereignty therefore depended upon a public ceremony, his coronation in the sacred temple of the Holy City. Once this event was advertised to take place on the 24th of August, 1882, but there were too many dangers threatening for the Czar to trust his precious person outside the walls of his well defended castle. His fears were advertised in all his acts and the spirit of Nihilism seemed to grow stronger and more audacious by reason of this fact.

At length the demands for his coronation were made so importunately, by the requirements of his duty as emperor, that another date was fixed, upon which it was declared the ceremony of coronation should take place. Preparations for this grand event were immediately begun and conducted upon the most lavish, needlessly expensive, plan that history has ever recorded. There was wisdom in this embellishment, however, for it was wisely intended to placate his easily deluded enemies. A vast majority of those who are in secret rebellion against the government, as is well known, are the most ignorant people on earth; they have a realizing sense of their oppression, and believe themselves to be the victims of a tyrannical master, because they have been told so; otherwise they might attribute their hardships to an offended deity. They really have no conceptions of liberty, more than a poetic dream of Utopia, and as a con-

THE RED GATE AT MOSCOW.

sequence their aspirations reach no further than those of a child that craves a new toy. The Czar and his advisers, therefore, very wisely for themselves, planned the coronal ceremony so as to win the good favor of these hapless and ignorant people, who would be delighted if a person should take money out of one of their pockets and put half the sum back into another; they would regard the act of taking as a tax, and that of giving as a gift. It was upon this principle that the coronation was conducted.

The date fixed for proclaiming Alexander III. Czar, was Sunday, May 27th, 1883, and the place at which the imposing ceremonies would take place was announced—with much solemnity—the Cathedral of the Holy Assumption, within the Kremlin walls.

On the morning of May 24th, a proclamation announcing the coronation was made by heralds-at-arms, attended by several dignitaries, from a circular platform before the Kremlin, which was used in ancient times for the promulgation of ukases and also for executions. Foreign embassadors, who had been formally apprised of the time the proclamation would be issued, were present, attended by a large escort. After bugle blasts from the heralds the Secretary of the Senate read the proclamation, as follows:

"Our most august, high and puissant sovereign, the Emperor Alexander, having ascended the hereditary throne of the Empire of all the Russias, Kingdom of Poland and Grand Duchy of Finland, which are inseparable from it, has deigned, following the example of his predecessors and their glorious ancestors, to command that the holy solemnity of coronation and anointment, in which the Empress will participate, shall, with the help of Almighty God, be performed on the 27th of

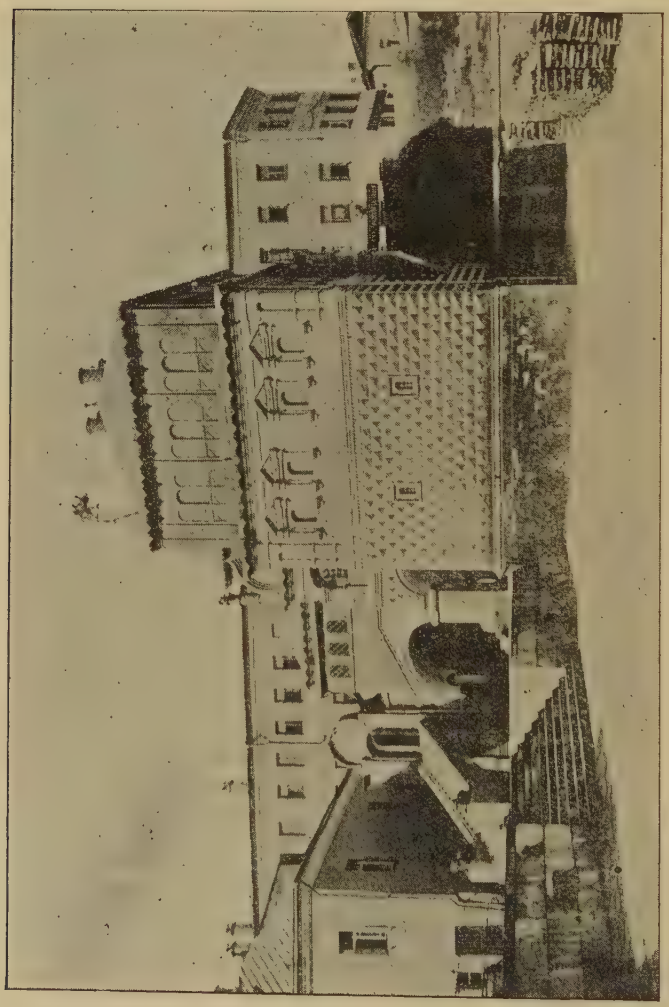
May. This solemn act is announced to all his Majesty's faithful subjects in order that on the joyful day their most fervent prayers may be offered to the King of kings, and that they may beseech the Almighty to send grace and blessing upon his Majesty's reign, for the maintenance of peace and tranquillity, to the greater glory of His holy name and the constant prosperity of the empire."

Copies of the proclamation, printed on satin paper, were hurled among the crowd, which struggled desperately to obtain them. Many of them believed the possession of a copy would entitle them to land and fortune. Some policemen narrowly escaped being crushed. Untorn copies of the proclamation realized high prices.

Early in the morning of May 21st the Czar and Czarina left St. Petersburg for Moscow, accompanied by a train load of dignitaries. Within fifteen minutes after his morning bath, and before he had left the Winter Palace, an explosion occurred in the Czar's dressing-room, doing much destruction to the furniture but injuring no one. An infernal machine, run by clock-work, had been placed in the room and set to explode about the time it was thought the Czar would be at his bath, but his ablutions were performed earlier than usual that morning, and to this fact is due his escape, but the circumstance so greatly agitated the Emperor and Empress that they did not recover their composure for several days. The imperial train reached Moscow at 3 o'clock in the afternoon, where their majesties were received by the royal guard. The Czar and Czarina stepped into a closed carriage, and, surrounded by an immense guard, they drove directly to the palace within the Kremlin walls; their faces were pale to ghastliness and neither spoke a single word during the four mile drive, being apparently absorbed with painful anticipations.

The arrangements made in Moscow for the reception were upon a scale of unexampled splendor. The morning was somewhat cloudy and at noon a light rain began to fall, so that the streets soon became most disagreeably slushy. The decorations along the route were very lavish and ornamental. On the side of the road facing the Minin and Posalsky monument was a colossal estrade, the seats rising amphitheatrically. In the tiers of benches were ranged 300 musicians and behind them a vast concourse of provincial delegates, and at the side a joyous array of school children in bright summer costumes. The girls were interspersed among the dark masses in male costume, producing a surprisingly beautiful effect. To the right of the Minin and Posalsky monument was a curious survival of the ancient Muscovite manners in the shape of a circular platform surrounded by a bulwark, with an entrance in the center. The circumference was approached by a flight of three or four steps. In the midst of the platform itself there were three more steps of wood, isolated, not leading anywhere. From this platform in by-gone times the solemn will of the Czar was formally promulgated. It was from this place the imperial herald made declaration of the date of the coronation of their majesties. This circular platform was formerly the public scaffold. The central steps were the block on which criminals knelt to be beheaded. Close to this dark side of the past, nearer the Kremlin, was an entire battery of artillery, gunners, drivers and everything complete. Still nearer the Kremlin was an ambulance bearing the cognizance of the Geneva cross and a great body of the clergy of the Kremlin waiting to receive the Emperor. At 2:15 a cannon was fired from the Kremlin and the clergy issued from the neighboring churches in new vestments, dal-

matics, capes and chasubles, with sacred images and incense. The bells clanged out in cheerful harmony with the hum of the visitors talking in every language,



HOUSE OF THE ROMANOFF CZARS.

Slav, Mongol, German, French and English—aided by the cheers of the enthusiastic crowd and the booming of cannon. All this could not drown the chiming of the bells. As the cortege approached the bells grew louder, the censers swung in air, drums rolled and the bands struck up. Then came the Cossack guard of the Emperor in Circassian frocks with shapkas of black astrakan and faced with orange cloth, with rifles carried on their hips. After these came two squadrons of Don Cossacks in scarlet and two squadrons of the Dragoon guards of Moscow. When these had passed a novel sight appeared. Delegates from all the Asiatic tributary tribes approached two and two; Kirghiz warriors in cloth of gold and purple; Mongols with yellow faces and dark blue gowns; Georgians, Kalmucks and Tartars of every grade, in silks, satins, turbans and caps of every shape and color in fur, lambskin and brocade. These had scarcely passed when the sight was dazzled by a long serpentine line of gold which resolved itself into a number of imperial lacqueys of the household. Behind these were four running footmen in the old grenadier hat and feathers, carrying large canes. Then came four giant negroes in full Oriental suits and chasseurs without end in scarlet, green and gold. These preceded the first rank of state carriages. Six white horses drew the first one, the animals caparisoned with bullion in relief. Postillions in three-cornered hats, and grooms were by each horse, and running footmen by each wheel. Six cream-white horses drew the next, six black horses the next, and still came four more state coaches, each of more elaborate ornament and wealth. But the greater attraction of the gorgeous Chevalier Guard drove the other wonders out of notice. They were attired in white tunics with gold cuirasses and polished casques, on which dazzling

silver eagles opened their brilliant wings. The front rank of each section bore lances on which red and white pennons fluttered. The rear rank carried swords. These splendid cavalrymen, 300 in number, preceded the Emperor, who now approached and was received with deafening shouts by the worshipping crowds. The Emperor's dress was the dark green uniform of a Cossack General with a black wool cap on his head. He saluted the shouting people or crossed himself as he passed the holy pictures, and with his young princes near him and the Duke of Edinburgh a little to the left, paced on, followed by his staff of two hundred men of every regiment, nation and uniform it is possible to imagine. Eight white horses, veiled in cascades of gold fringe and ridden by postillions, drew the splendid vehicle in which the handsome young Empress was seated in her imperial robes. She wore the Russian tiara. Her carriage was worthy of note not only for the detail and lavish decoration in crimson velvet of the roof and painted panels, but because it was built for the Great Catherine and used at her coronation. The stage coach which bore the Duchess of Edinburgh was nearly as fine. It was adorned with pictures of nymphs and cupids of gold. The pageant was a magnificent success. It filed slowly through the double portal of the Voskressensky gate, past the northeastern face of the Kremlin which was adorned with shields of cities, provinces and nationalities. Along the route were many American flags. The procession passed along the face of the grand stand, containing upward of 10,000 persons, and in front of the renowned Church of St. Basil, with its extraordinary cluster of towers and domes, and near that spot entered the Kremlin.

Their majesties remained for three days in the Krem-

lin Palace, in fasting and prayer, according to ancient custom.

Moscow was crowded as it never was before, there being more than a half million of visitors to witness the imposing pageant through the streets and the demonstrations that were prepared to be made after the ceremonies closed. The Kremlin presented a gorgeous appearance, every building within its enclosure being newly painted with three coats of white, the fortifications were green and the several entrances were rose-tinted, while the great domes were regilded with gold. Windows along the route rented for as much as $500, but all who occupied them were required to submit to an examination of their persons, that no concealed bombs might be secreted about them. Even oranges were prohibited from being carried about lest they might be an innocent covering to a dynamite bomb.

On Sunday morning, May 27th, the procession formed at the cavalry barracks, four miles from the Kremlin. Preceding the procession were sixty heralds on cream colored horses commanded by a general, who, when he reached the gates of the barracks, blew a salute. The colonel at the barracks asked the commander for his order. To this, response was given: "The Czar commands thee to follow me."

In compliance with this the gates were thrown wide open and the regiment followed the heralds to the Lancers' barracks, thence to the university, to the cathedral of St. Nicholas for the clergy; thence to the courts for the Judges; thence to the headquarters of the marshals of the nobility, the staff officers, professions, governors, prefects, trade guilds, deputations, etc., at each of which the same ceremony took place. The procession being now made up, it marched to the Kremlin, its length being

fully four miles. When the commandant of the heralds arrived at St. Demitrius gate another blast of the trumpet was given. This brought out the commander of the citidel who asked what they demanded. To this there was a great shout, "THE CZAR."

"And for what do you want him?"

"To crown him the most powerful of the powerful," was the reply, whereupon the gates were opened to admit the procession.

The Metropolitans (chief priests) of Moscow, Kieff, Kazan and Novgorod (ancient capitals) here took up positions at the head of the procession, and with deputations from all parts of the empire advanced to the palace and formed in front of it. The deputations consisted of Russians, Roumanians, Kirghees, Chinese, Mingrelians, Bashkirs, Poles, Georgians, Circassians, Calmucks, Armenians, Turkomans, Tartars, Esquimaux, Afghans, Bulgarians, Laplanders, Mongolians, Finns, Persians and Bokharians, all in their respective national costumes. The Metropolitans called upon the Czar to come forward, upon which he appeared on the portico, dressed in the uniform of a colonel of the Imperial Guards, with the Empress, dressed as a Russian peasant, on his arm. The instant the deputations were aware of the Imperial presence they knelt, and, being asked by the Czar what they desired of him, the Metropolitan of Moscow answered that they had been sent from afar and wide to see their Czar anointed, so that they could return to their homes and assure those who sent them that the Czar is verily the Lord's anointed and that they may obey none but him. Thence all proceeded to the Cathedral of the Holy Assumption, the Czar and Czarina walking between the bishops and deputations, for the ceremony of the coronation.

When the imperial procession started it was made known to those inside the Cathedral by a renewed ringing of bells, by sonorous music from scores of bands and by shouts from those outside. As the royal pair appeared at the doors of the palace the immense multitude immediately uncovered their heads and burst into loud acclamations. Even women were bonnet-bare, and the enthusiasm was unaffected as it was spontaneous and hearty. At the head of the royal procession, which now entered the Kremlin, was the master of ceremonies, flanked by heralds richly clad and mounted on pure white horses. It was of immense length, and composed of deputies from the Asiatic States of the empire, students of the university, clergy, judges, nobility and prefects from every section of the empire. When its front rank reached the doors of the palace it was met by the Emperor, wearing the white uniform of a colonel of the Imperial Guards, and by the Empress, dressed in the Russian national costume of black velvet, richly embroidered with diamonds, and girdled with a magnificent belt of precious stones. The Empress leaned on the arm of her royal consort. The pair placed themselves beneath the canopy richly wrought in silk and gold, and borne by thirty-two Generals of high military rank. They then took their places near the head of the procession, being directly after the regalia. At this moment the entire body of clergy emerged from the cathedral in order to meet the regalia, which they publicly sprinkled with holy water and perfumed with incense.

Upon entering the portals of the cathedral the Emperor and Empress were received by the Metropolitan of Moscow, and Metropolitans of Novogorod and Keiff, who presented the cross to be kissed and sprinkled with holy water, first by the Emperor and then the Empress. Be-

fore sacred images, which flanked the doors of the cathedral, they knelt and bowed their heads, after which they

THE ROYAL REGALIA.

were conducted to the ancient thrones of ivory and silver. Alexander occupied the ancient throne of the Czar

Vladimir of Monomague, while the Empress was seated in the armchair, gilded and encrusted with jewels. The thrones were placed upon a dais, erected between two middle columns of the cathedral. Over the dais was a canopy of scarlet velvet, suspended from a rich roof embroidered with gold and lined with silver brocade, which was worked with the arms of Russia and all her dependencies in the most ingenious manner. In front of the throne were two tables covered with gold cloth, upon which were placed the crowns, orb and scepter. None but foreign princes were accommodated with seats. Russian princes and dignitaries stood during the entire ceremony, according to the custom of the Greeks. The dignitaries of the realm, who were carrying the standard and seals of the empire, took their stand upon the steps of the dais.

After their Majesties had been seated the Metropolitan of Novgorod asked the Emperor in a loud and distinct voice, "Are you a true believer?"

The Emperor, falling on his knees, read in reply, in a clear voice, the Lord's Prayer and the Apostles' Creed of the Greek Church, the Metropolitan responding, "May the grace of the Holy Ghost remain with thee." Descended from the dais, the following customary summons was then three times repeated by the Bishop:

"If there be any of you here present knowing any impediment for which Alexander, son of Alexander, should not be crowned by the Grace of God Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias, of Moscow, of Kieff, of Veadetmir, of Novgorod, Czar of Kazan, of Astrakhan, of Poland, of Siberia, of Kherson, Taurida of Grousi, Geosoudar of Pskoff, Grand Duke of Smolensk, of Lithuania, of Volheznia, of Podolonia and of Finland, Prince of Esthonia, of Livonia, of Courtland, of Semi-

galia, of the Samoyedes, of Bielostok, of Corena, of Foer, of Ingor, of Perm, of Viatka, of Bulgaria, and

THE GREAT CANNON AT MOSCOW

of other countries ; Master and Grand Duke of the lower countries in Novgorod, of Tchernigoff, of Riazan, of

Polotka, of Rostoff, of Jarostoff, of Bielosersk, of Oudorke, of Kontizk, of Vitelsk, of Mstilaff, and of all the countries of the North; Master Absolute of Iversk, of Kastainisk, of Kabardinsk, and of the territory of Armenia; Sovereign of Mountain Princes, of Tiaherkask, Master of Turkestan, heir presumptive of Norway and Duke of Sleswick-Holstein, of Stormaine, of Dithmarse, and of Oldenburg, let him come forward in the name of the Holy Trinity and show what the impediment is, or let him remain dumb forever."

After reading selections from the gospe , the Metropolitans of Novgorod and Kieff again ascended the dais and invested the Emperor with the Imperial Mantle of ermine, the Metropolitan of Moscow saying at the same time: "Cover and protect thy people as this robe protects and covers thee."

The Emperor responded: "I will, I will, I will, God helping."

The Metropolitan of Novgorod, crossing his hands upon the head of the Emperor, then invoked the benediction of Almighty God upon him and his reign, and delivered to Alexander III. the crown of Russia, who placed it upon his own head, and, assuming the scepter and orb, took his seat upon the throne. He then resigned the insignia of his title to dignitaries appointed to receive them, and called the Empress, who knelt before him. He touched her head lightly with the crown of the Emperor, and then formally crowned her with her own crown. The expression and attitude of the Empress as she knelt was one of sympathy with her royal husband and touched deeply the audience. The Czar preserved throughout a grave and decorous dignity and nobleness of demeanor, which provoked the admiration of all. After the Empress had been duly invested with the imperial

mantle, and their Majesties were seated on their thrones, the Archdeacon intoned the imperial titles, and sang, "Domine Salvum fac Imperatorem," which was taken

THE EMPEROR CROWNING THE EMPRESS.

up and thrice repeated by the choir. Directly this part of the ceremony was finished, the bells of all the churches in Moscow rang out in chorus, a salute of 101 guns was fired, and inside the cathedral members of the imperial family tendered their congratulations to their Majesties. The Emperor then knelt and recited a prayer, at the end of which the clergy and all knelt before the Emperor. The Bishop of Moscow said aloud, in behalf of the nation, a fervent prayer for the happiness of their Majesties. Shouts of "Long live the Emperor" then rent the cathedral, and were taken up by thousands outside and carried from mouth to mouth, until that part of the multitude who were unable to get inside even the ample acreage of the Kremlin caught the sound and waved in a huge volume of human gratulation to the remotest parts of the city, when it was speedily made known to all the world that another Czar of the Russias had been crowned.

The cathedral choir then sang Te Deum, after which the Emperor ungirded his sword, and, accompanied by the Empress and numerous dignitaries, proceeded to the gate of the sanctuary. There the Metropolitan of Novgorod anointed the Emperor's forehead, eyelids, nostrils, lips, ears, breast and hands, at the same time exclaiming, "Behold the seal of the Holy Ghost, may it keep thee ever holy." The Empress was anointed on the forehead. Both partook of the sacrament and then left the cathedral, wearing their crowns and mantles, the Emperor also bearing the scepter and orb. After praying in the Cathedral of Michael the Archangel their Majesties returned to the palace, escorted by a procession, which presented even a more splendid sight than that which escorted them to the cathedral, being now augmented by the gorgeous state carriages of the imperial family. Banners waved from all points in the Kremlin and the whole

route of the procession fairly glowed with bright draperies and hangings. The Emperor re-entered the palace by the celebrated red stair-case, whence laws were anciently promulgated. There he turned and saluted the people, who immediately uncovered their heads, cheering enthusiastically and blessing the Czar.

The Imperial banquet began at 3:30 P. M., in the hall called the Granovitaia Palata. This hall was specially restored for the occasion, and was splendidly decorated with cloth of gold. The Emperor and Empress, wearing their crowns, sat at separate tables on thrones of unequal height. Their Majesties were served by distinguished nobles, acting as cup-bearers, carvers, etc. The first toast was "His Majesty, the Emperor," followed by a salute of sixty-one guns. The next was "Her Majesty, the Empress," followed by fifty-one guns. The third was, "The Imperial Household," followed by thirty-one guns, and the fourth was, "The clergy and faithful subjects," followed by twenty-one guns. Foreign princes and diplomates stood during the first course and afterward, in accordance with ancient custom, withdrew to a separate repast. The weather was fine throughout the day, and everything passed off successfully. Silver tokens in memory of the day were distributed in twenty Moscow churches at night.

The Czar's manifesto was issued in the evening, and was a document of very considerable length. The manifesto announced a continuance of the present state of affairs in Russia, conditional pardon of Poles, remission of penalties for non-political offenses and other matters. Crowds besieged the printing office to obtain copies, the perusal of which caused great rejoicing.

The Czar addressed the following rescript to De Girs, Minister of Foreign Affairs:

"The great power and glory acquired by Russia thanks to Divine Providence, the extent of her empire

ILLUMINATION AT MOSCOW IN HONOR OF THE CORONATION.

and her numerous population, leave no room for any idea of further conquests. My solicitude is exclusively de-

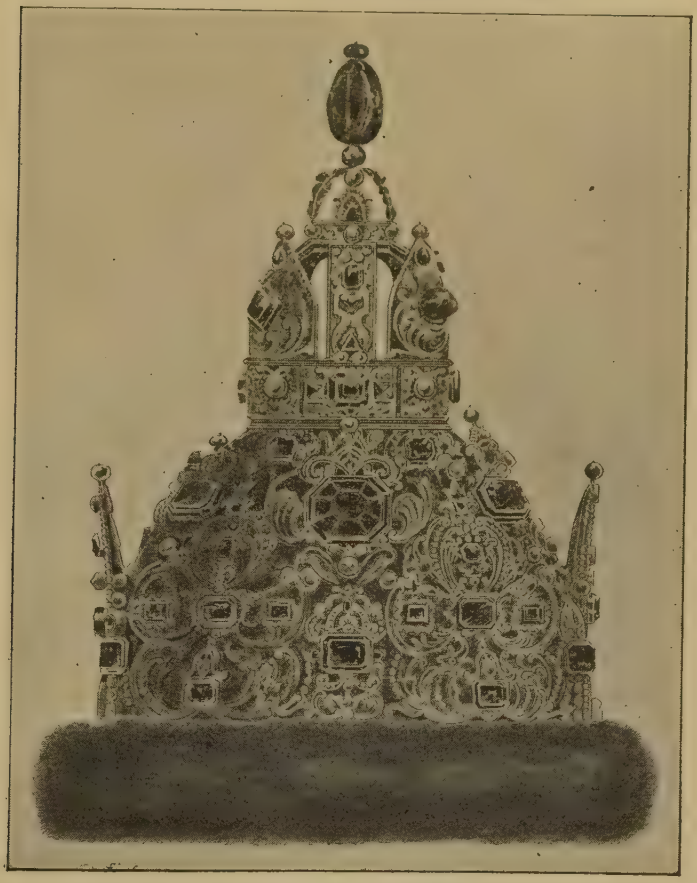
voted to the peaceable development of the country and its prosperity, to the preservation of friendly relations with foreign powers on the basis of existing treaties, and to the maintenance of the dignity of the empire. Having found in you a constant, zealous and useful colaborator for the promotion of these views in the direction of our international relations, I confer upon you my order of St. Alexander Nevski, in diamonds, as a testimony of my gratitude."

Before their Majesties left the palace the route to the cathedral was sprinkled with holy water. A heavy rain fell before they started, but just as they took their places under the canopy the sun shone brilliantly. In the cathedral it was noticed that when the Czar knelt alone to utter a prayer of intercession his eyes filled with tears and he sobbed audibly as he read. In making a profession of faith the Czar's voice was grandly resonant. The Metropolitan of Novgorod almost broke down in delivering his allocution.

Mounted Cossacks patrolled every street, and troops lining the route of the procession remained bareheaded the whole morning. Those unable to obtain admission to the Kremlin remained outside on their knees, close to the walls, during the best part of the day, praying for the Czar. A correspondent who witnessed the greatest pageants during the last thirty-five years says the spectacle culminating in the advent of their Majesties, crowned and robed, was the most imposing and splendid he ever beheld.

The cost of the coronation is estimated at $10,000,000, which was covered by the issue of treasury bills. Only thirteen newspaper correspondents were allowed inside the cathedral during the ceremony—six Russian, and seven foreign, the latter including one English and

one American correspondent. An academy professor and twelve Russian artists were appointed to make a complete album of the events of the coronation.



IMPERIAL CROWN OF RUSSIA.

The Czar's crown dates from the period of Emperor Paul I., and is valued at $1,500,000.

A festival and illumination, such as were probably never seen before, followed the coronation. The

people seemed to have lost their wits and were in a delirium of joy; not particularly because the Czar had been crowned, but because their ebullient feelings were first excited and then allowed to work off without restraint.

The Moujiks, (poor peasant people) while they were not permitted to witness the coronation of their sovereign, were provided for in a way which stimulated them to make a demonstration even greater than might have been expected on such an occasion.

The vast Chodynski plains were covered with booths, tents and barracks, for the accommodation of the people generally. Drink and food were distributed free from one hundred and twenty baggage cars. Every Moujik received an earthenware jug stamped with the Imperial Eagle and date of the coronation. These jugs were filled with beer as often as called for. In addition to this, each person received two meat pies and an abundance of candies, dried fruits and cakes. There were also four large theatres erected in which performances were given free to the populace, the pieces played being taken from the ancient St. Vladimir series, which included symbolic allusions to the coronation. There were also twelve combined military bands with twelve singing companies, giving open air concerts. Salamonsky, the Barnum of Russia, gave a grand hippodrome performance to the people at the Crown's expense. At Sonolinsky's park, three miles from the city, a rotunda was built capable of seating three thousand people, besides a separate saloon for the court; tables were also arranged to seat ten thousand persons. This place continued open for three nights, entertaining the peasants with music, songs, beer and an abundance of edibles. The place was beautifully illuminated with many-colored lanterns suspended from the branches of the trees and made the park look like a place of enchantment.

1. Bridge over the River Kau, near Town of Kansk.
2. Petrovskova, a Typical Station on the Central Siberian Line.
3. Bridge over the River Rybnaya, near Krasnoyarsk.
4. Siberian Gold-Mining Camp in the Yeneseisk Government.
5. Building a Bridge: Pile-Drivers in the Background; in Foreground, Winter Covers for Men Working at Piers.
6. An Accident; a frequent Occurrence in the early days of the Line.
7. Irkutsk Railway Station—The First Train from the West on August 28, 1898; Irkutsk is seen in the Distance, Angara between.

SCENES ON THE NEW TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

It was by this liberal provision for the poorer class that the Czar sought to conciliate them, and how well he succeeded is illustrated by his safe return to St. Petersburg and his occasional appearance on the streets of that city—in an impenetrable disguise.

The costly display made at the coronation is already reacting upon the Czar and his counsellors, the effect being rather to intensify the hatred previously shown for the autocrat. It served to illustrate to his poverty-stricken subjects the magnificent splendor in which their sovereign lives, and contrasted so severely with their own miserable condition that they have already forgotten the meat-pies, jugs of beer and fetes given them at Moscow. The agriculturist, who pays all of Russia's taxes, turns back at times from his rude plow to wonder why he is so oppressed; he sees nothing but approaching starvation, and even the carrion birds seem to follow in his furrow in daily expectation of the feast which his body must furnish them. This is a true picture of Russia's poor. Let us thank God the more fervently for our blessed Republic.

An incident happened which had been prepared to work upon the superstition of the people and imbue them with the divine right of their monarch. Just at the moment of the coronation there appeared a white dove that hovered over the Czar.

The enthusiasm of the people, however, throughout the entire time was chilled by the precautions taken to prevent them approaching the Czar. They were forbidden to toss their caps in the air, lest they should contain bombs.

The festivities following the coronation lasted a week. Every hour was filled with entertainment, not only for the court officials and visiting guests but for the common people. A large fete was held, where over 400,000 were served freely with sweetmeats, meat pies, cakes and beer.

The royal couple left Moscow secretly and returned to Peterhof, their favorite suburban retreat.

Alexander followed closely the policy of his father, and was very slow to inaugurate reforms. He would not comply with his people's request for a constitution, and gave them no voice to express their grievances. Although he himself was cautious, pacific, truth-speaking and devoted to his country, yet he allowed himself to be made the tool of dishonest men, so that his reign was one long story of conspiracy and banishment of suspected persons. Enormous taxes were levied upon the peasants, and if they did not pay them they were flogged, and their live stock, furniture and huts sold at auction. Thousands every year were turned adrift to live as they might, to beg, steal or die. It is estimated that twenty million died from the famine during 1890 and 1891. Dr. Talmage was sent from the United States to St. Petersburg, and aided materially in distributing charity to the sufferers.

Alexander III. had a great love for engineering enterprises, and one of his favorite schemes was the Great Siberian Railway, opening up the immense country of Siberia. It was also under his direction that the Prinsk marshes, a huge swamp as large as Scotland, was drained and turned into agricultural land.

The religious persecutions were most dreadful. The press was shackled even more than in the reign of his father, so that even the Russians themselves were not aware of a tenth of what was being done. It was no wonder then, in view of this tyranny and persecution, that so many hearts were filled with hatred toward the Czar, whom they held responsible, and that the Nemesis of Misgovernment—fear of a violent death—filled his own life with sorrow and dread. Again and again was his life threatened. He lived in a state of siege, always surrounded by guards. When speaking of Russia he always called it his prison.

Although his own country was thus filled with disturbance and trouble, his influence and character abroad were

great, and among other countries he was called "the peace-maker of Europe," no war having taken place during his reign of thirteen years.

In spite of the many attacks upon his life he died peacefully in his armchair on Thursday, November 1, 1894, at Livadia, where he had gone with the hope that the southern climate might be of benefit to him. Kidney disease, brought on by an attack of influenza, caused his death.

The burial service was held with pomp and ceremony. Most of the sovereigns and princes of the world were present, and many were the expressions of grief and sorrow. From France alone there were sent five thousand wreaths of flowers.

Doubts and misgivings were expressed by leaders in all civilized nations when the time came for Nicholas II. to ascend the throne of the Russias. Nicholas was not unknown but he was untried. The placing of such a vast power in the hands of a very young man was calculated to produce feelings of hope and fear in the minds of all that were in touch with the affairs of state in the great nations of the earth at that time. Close observers of the influences that were swaying nations and shaping events realized the possibilities for good that came with Nicholas' ascension to the throne, and at the same time feared the contingencies that might arise in the formation of the policy of the young Czar.

The first proclamation of Nicholas II. set at rest, for the time being at least, all fears for the nearby future.

The manifesto was concluded with a command that the oath of allegiance be taken to him, Emperor Nicholas II., and to his heir apparent, Grand Duke George Alexandrovitch, his brother, who is to be entitled czarowitz until God may bless with a son the union he was about to enter with the Princess Alix of Hesse-Darmstadt.

Nicholas succeeded his father November 1, 1894, the

day of his father's death, but his proclamation was not heralded until the following day. Before the remains of Alexander III. had been placed in their last resting place, and while at Moscow, where the body lay a fortnight after his death, Nicholas assured the populace that he would aim to walk in his father's footsteps.

Unlike his father, Nicholas had been reared and educated with the idea that he would some day be ruler of the Russians.

He was born May 18, 1868. His constitution was delicate enough to cause his parents some anxiety. The physical contrast between Nicholas and his father was so great that it seemed almost that they were not of the same race. As Nicholas came to manhood he became more robust, although he remained comparatively pallid, frail and was of nervous disposition. He resembles his father in many personal traits, but is far ahead of Alexander in a possession of scientific knowledge and a knowledge of the world. He spent much time in travel, and acquired a fund of information while on his journeys. He is somewhat averse to the homage of court and of official life.

He entered the army at the age of eighteen. Although not a passionate soldier, Nicholas' inclination to do thoroughly anything he undertook enabled him to become a good officer, able to recognize mistakes and appreciate efficiency. He had wonderful respect for the Czar when a young man, and thought the Czar greater than his father. When a lieutenant he one day became tired and threw himself on his couch for a rest after carefully removing his boots and uniform. He was about to fall asleep when his father entered the room. In speaking of this afterwards he said: "You can imagine my terror when I saw the Czar before me and I had no boots on." He is fond of music and dancing, and has a good tenor voice.

Nicholas is reputed to be possessed of sound judgment

and to have common sense. He never makes a resolution in haste, but when once made he can never be swerved from it. One writer said of him when he was wholly untried as a ruler: "Europe can look on him with great confidence and trust every word he utters." Every act of Nicholas II. since his ascension to the throne has been a verification of this sentiment.

In this connection the sentiments which he has expressed upon the disarmament of Europe have received much serious attention, but the conflict between the United States and Spain has, temporarily at least, been the cause for dissipating any entertained idea of lessening the forces of war.

The marriage of Nicholas II. to Princess Alix of Hesse-Darmstadt took place at St. Petersburg November 26, twenty-five days after the death of Alexander III. The betrothal of the couple had been announced at the Coburg wedding in April, 1894, by the Emperor of Germany, and it was the wish of Alexander III. that the nuptials be celebrated at as early a day as possible. Princess Alix was formally admitted to the Orthodox church, and at this ceremony received her new name, Alexandra Feodorovna. The affair was the occasion of much pomp and ceremony. The tendency of this marriage was to unify the interests of Russia, England and Germany. The Czarina is a granddaughter of Queen Victoria, the youngest daughter of Alice Maud Mary, Grand Duchess of Hesse, second child of Queen Victoria. Princess Alix was born in 1872. She has a fine face, and is possessed of a temperament that makes her a most companionable consort to the Czar, and she has progressive ideas. The Czar himself is a nephew of the Prince and Princess of Wales, and the marriage of the youngest brother of the Czarina, Ernest Louis, Grand Duke of Hesse, in April, 1894, to Princess Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, linked this generation of the royal families of Russia, England

and Germany together quite as effectively as had the marriages of some of their ancestors.

The coronation of Nicholas II. took place at Moscow, May 26, 1896. Weeks had been spent in preparation for the great event, and at the time appointed the ceremony was celebrated with solemn splendor consistent with the exalted and autocratic office of the Czar of all the Russias. In seeming antithesis to this effect the Emperor, by way of an offering to his people, granted a series of clemencies and reforms that were in fact in great contrast to the acts of his predecessors on the throne. The horrors of Siberia and the terrors of police espionage were mitigated or abolished in classified cases.

The exercises were opened with a cannon salute at seven o'clock. An hour later a Te Deum was celebrated in the Cathedral for the ex-Empress and the members of the imperial family, with the exception of those that were to take part in the Czar's procession. Almost as soon as the members of the cortege had been assigned to their places the imperial procession began the movement to the Cathedral. Upon arriving at the Cathedral their majesties, Nicholas Alexandrovitch and Empress Alexandra, seated themselves upon the throne of the Czars, Michael Fedorovitch and John III. The Emperor made his confession of Orthodox faith, donned the imperial order of St. Andrew, placed on his head the imperial crown, and was presented with the sceptre and globe. Removing the crown he placed it on the head of the Empress, afterward replacing it on his own head. Then taking up the crown of the Empress he placed it on her head. The Empress' imperial mantle of the Order of St. Andrew was put on by her and her majesty took her seat on the throne. That done the exercises ended with religious rites and a salute of one hundred and one guns. The part played by the clergy at the coronation was most interesting and suggestive. Before the Czar and the Czarina could take their seats or be

enthroned they must kneel before the sacred icons. Before the coronation service began the Metropolitan of St. Petersburg confronted the Czar and in a loud voice challenged him to make public profession of the Orthodox faith before all his subjects. This done, he received the blessing of the Metropolitan, and was then free to crown himself, and the august ceremonial went on to the end without interruption amid the singing of the choir and the music of church bells. One writer remarks in this connection: "What a vista of victory of spirit over matter does not this coronation open up, and how little the fierce old predecessors of the Romanoffs, who selected the Greek faith rather than that of the Jew, Moslem or Roman, dreamed that the new creed would make its profession the indispensable preliminary to the assumption of the crown of Russia!"

Of all the coronations in Russia that of Nicholas II. was by far the grandest, most elaborate and most expensive. The cost alone of these ceremonies, the decorations and preparation must have been in excess of $25,000,000. Representatives of all the leading nations of the earth were present. The United States was represented by Rear Admiral T. O. Selfridge, Jr., commanding the European station, United States Navy, and Major Clifton R. Breckenridge, the American Minister, who attended in full court costume.

Great Britain was represented by the Duke and Duchess of Connaught and General Sir Francis Grenfell and their attendants.

Li Hung Chang attended as the representative of the Chinese Emperor, and Marshall Yamagata represented the Emperor of Japan.

The Czar's manifesto, issued upon the occasion of his coronation, remitted all arrears of taxation in European Russia and Poland, reduced the land tax by one-half for ten years, and remitted or reduced all fines, quashed all

petty convictions involving imprisonment or fines up to thirty roubles, with the exception of persons sentenced for robbery, embezzlement, usury, extortion, fraudulent bankruptcy or offences against honor. The manifesto also prescribed that all exiles in Siberia, after twelve years' exile in the remoter parts, be, after two years, allowed to choose their place of residence, excepting capital cities and seats of governments, but their civil rights would not be restored. Exiled criminals had one-third of their sentences remitted, life sentences were commuted to twenty years, and many other punishments were made lighter.

Regarding political prisoners, the Minister of Justice was authorized to grant, according to the nature of the offence, remissions of punishment in addition to those in the general amnesty, and advise the Czar to restore civil rights to those that had led blameless lives since having completed their banishment, and to reconsider the cases of those punished summarily who, by subsequent behavior, merited indulgence. Political refugees were accorded immunity from prosecution, provided fifteen years had elapsed since their offence.

Later in the day an imperial ukase was issued announcing many promotions and decorations of Russian diplomats, and establishing as a special distinction to the clergy a silver cross to be worn on the breast. The Metropolitans of St. Petersburg, Kieff and Moscow, who officiated at the coronation ceremonies, received an imperial letter and the new cross in diamonds.

Early in the morning of May 30, during the festivities on the Khodijniskoje plain, occurred a catastrophe that resulted in the death of many hundreds of the attendants and caused the rest of the coronation celebration to seem more like a funeral than a jubilation, so far as the common people were concerned. Arrangements had been made for caring for 100,000 people, but more than twice that number came during the night. When dawn came the crowd

was immense. Very few of the police were on hand at so early an hour, and those that were present could only, with the greatest difficulty, make their way through the crowd. Arrangements had been made to distribute to each person of the assembled thousands a commative mug, some sausage, sweetmeats and sweetcake, all of the value of about fifty cents. It will never be known how it happened, but the crowd became suddenly stampeded, and before the multitude could be quieted hundreds had been trampled to death. Low spots in the plain were veritable death holes. The official estimate placed the number of killed at 1,360 and the number of wounded at 644, but other estimates ranged as high as 3,873 killed and 4,000 injured, most of them being poor moujiks from the provinces and many of them women and children. The Czar and Czarina were deeply moved, and ordered 1,000 roubles paid to each bereaved family and paid the burial expenses of all the dead. They also subscribed 20,000 roubles for the children that had lost their parents.

For two weeks following the coronation there was a constant round of fetes and receptions. On June 6, the birthday of the Czarina, a banquet was given to the diplomatic corps, and on June 7 their majesties retired from Moscow to the imperial estate of Ilinsky, where they rested for some days before proceeding to St. Petersburg.

In all governments there are classes of people that are dissatisfied with the manner in which the business of the government is conducted. Some of these classes would overthrow everything and they offer nothing as a substitute. Others would tear down present forms for substitutes that are untried, substitutes that are nothing more than the theories of their advocates. In nearly all countries all classes of malcontents are usually put under a single title. This is erroneous, but true. In Russia all opposed in any way to the government are termed Nihilists, in England they are termed Fenians, in France Com-

munists, and in America and Germany Anarchists. The word "nihilist" is somewhat misleading. It was first conferred as a nickname, and afterwards adopted in a kind of dare-devil manner, and has since covered all sorts of varieties of social and political discontent, as well as of philosophical radicalism. One writer says there were Nihilists who, from the sheer hopelessness engendered by a tyranny lasting a thousand years, had come to cultivate a philosophy of despair, of disgust and of destruction, without troubling themselves as to the constitution of the future. These were men that professed a wish to do away with all state organization for the sake of a morbid individualism. Others were inclined towards a socialist collection in Utopian form. The term "nihilist" is certainly not applicable to the latter. But even men who would have been satisfied with a simple democratic, even a republican form of government under a kingly head, have often been ignorantly termed Nihilists.

Nihilism is probably even now more active in Russia than at any time since the assassination of Alexander II., and extraordinary precautions are at all times taken to guard the life of Nicholas II. In July, 1895, an extensive conspiracy was discovered in Moscow and arrests were made. Towards the end of that month it was discovered that members of the students' union of the University of Moscow were implicated in a plot to assassinate the Czar, and that the priests in the seminary of Kieff were plotting against the administration. August 19, 1895, the artillery barracks at Toola were blown up, after having been undermined, presumably by Nihilists, and three hundred persons were killed, including many officers. Within the following fortnight there were nearly one thousand arrests of suspected persons.

Measures intended to advance the social, political, economical and commercial welfare of his people have been taken up and prosecuted with vigor by Nicholas II., and

the measures looking to these ends that were begun by Alexander III. have been well supported and pushed towards completion by the young Czar. The private saloon has been abolished, and the government has assumed control of the liquor traffic under a plan somewhat similar to that in operation in South Carolina. The primary object of this action was to provide revenue for the government, but the fact that such control would rid the people of the evils of the liquor business as privately conducted was also taken into consideration. Other laws, most of them conceived and some of them partly promulgated by Alexander III. for the benefit of the whole people, have been enacted. The tramp question has been quite effectually disposed of in St. Petersburg. The police were required to take a census of the paupers of the city. Help was provided for the sick, aged and children through the means of public eating houses and asylums. Able-bodied men were provided with work and given ten cents a day and food together with shelter if necessary. Those declining to accept the opportunity to earn at least a living were imprisoned, and the problem seems to have been solved in a single stroke.

The peasant banks have proven successful. They were started in 1883 by Alexander III. Their object was to assist the peasantry in the purchase of land and to encourage the ownership of land by the farm-working classes. Three-fourths of the price of the land was advanced, and a lien taken on the property until the payments were made. Millions of acres of land have been bought and paid for under the operation of this law.

Many very important internal improvements have been and are being projected. The great Siberian railway is being pushed along to completion.

Work is progressing on the plans promulgated by the government for a great canal to connect the Baltic and Black Seas. This waterway will have Riga for its northern

terminus, and it will follow, as nearly as will be most economical, the courses of the Dwina, the Beresina, and the Dnieper with the terminus at Kherson, near where the Dnieper empties into the Black Sea. It is to have a minimum depth of thirty feet, a bottom width of one hundred feet, and will be about one thousand miles long. Its construction will involve an expenditure of about $150,000,000. Six days' travel at a steady speed of seven miles an hour, day and night, will be required to pass from one end to the other. By night the canal is to be lighted by electricity. Although valuable from a strategic point of view, this canal means much for the trade and commerce of the country. Surveys and plans have also been made to connect Don and Volga, and by this means the Black and Caspian Seas.

Under Nicholas II. the persecution of the Jews in Russia is carried on with ever-increasing severity. They are driven in to certain towns and are not permitted to obtain the education that would prepare them to pass the examinations that would entitle them to emigrate. Colleges and high schools are forbidden to permit an attendance of more than five per cent of Jews, while in Moscow and St. Petersburg this limit is cut to three per cent. Under the provisions of a ukase from Nicholas II. no Hebrew is permitted to embrace the Christian faith unless his wife, children, brothers and parents also accept such faith, and by other means they are prohibited from joining the Roman Catholic church or Protestant churches or anything but the Russian Orthodox church.

Some of the more recent troubles that have engaged the arms of European nations have arisen from conflicting claims to certain territory in other countries.

The principal nations of Europe, in order to find an outlet for their surplus population and the over-production of their manufactures, have sought to acquire territory in other continents, and territory in Africa has been coveted

by France, Germany and Italy. The last nation to step in for lands in west Africa was England, whose ostensible aim seems to have been to interfere with the fierce lust for annexation and passion for African lands that was exhibited by the other European powers named. African lands have attracted European settlers because of their richness in agricultural and mineral resources.

Settlements were made in all parts of Africa, and many disputes have arisen as to lands claimed, especially in west Africa. These claims have been based on actual possession and upon treaties made with native chiefs. In many cases these treaties covered the same lands granted to each of the three rival nations. In order to protect colonists, not only from the encroachments of settlers of rival nations but from the attacks of natives, the powers have kept armed forces in the disputed territory.

Greed for the possession of new territory, however, has been the chief motive that has actuated all these nations in acquiring lands in Africa.

First, Africa was the object of general grabbing by European nations and next in turn came Asia. This colonial policy is fast bringing all the earth under more direct control of a few leading powers, and these are forming alliances. Even the old nations of the Orient are seized and shaken up from their sleep of centuries and drilled for the final struggle that would seem inevitable. A spirit of jealousy, each of the other, lest one should gain a piece of territory coveted by the other, seems to govern the great European powers in their grabbing of points of vantage in Asia. To occupy strategic points on this continent, in order that a rival nation would not have a better equipment for the waging of war if necessary, seems to have been one of the ruling motives governing the movements of the great European nations in Asiatic territory.

Russia is spending millions of dollars in the develop-

ment of the vast natural resources of Siberia and other portions of her domain. The last Russian budget calls for enormous outlays in railroad building. The appropriation for internal improvements of this character far exceed the appropriations for her army and navy. The Czar's ambition is to develop the commercial and industrial resources of Russia, and some writers have assigned this ambition as the real cause for his disarmament proposal, charging that Russia grudges the money and men exacted by present conditions of the great armed peace of Europe. Russia's incursive movements into Chinese territory have been brought about by her great ambition for commercial and industrial development. Treaties have been made and points of vantage have been gained peaceably and forced upon the Chinese, possibly by menace of arms. Russia has tightened her grasp on China, confirmed her foothold on Korea, and extended her influence as an Oriental power. Her aim seems to be one of expansion. One of her first motives in this movement was to obtain a commercial outlet in the Pacific Ocean that would not be bound up by ice half the year. To this end the Eastern Chinese Railway Company was organized to construct a railway on Chinese soil in connection with the trans-Siberian railway. It will require six years to complete the Manchurin railway. It will be 1,280 miles long, 946 of which will be through Chinese territory, and be 342 miles shorter than if built within the Russian border. The Chinese have the right of purchase in thirty-six years, or they may take the line in eighty years without purchase. Withal it seems to be the Czar's aim to Russianize China. Russian schools are to be established at Pekin and Russian influence made predominant. The opening up of northern China and of south Siberia to the commerce of the world is one of the great modern achievements. This development of natural resources in China and Russia has attracted many American railroad builders, and they have been

welcomed because of the feeling that they could have no other motive than that of a desire for personal benefit.

The Czar is quite currently reported to have been incapacitated to conduct personally the affairs of his vast domains, and his uncle is said to be the real active power that now directs Russian progress.

Russia's land forces are about equal in numbers to those of Germany, and in each the grand war total foots about 5,200,000 men. The French land forces come next with a force of slightly less than 5,000,000 men and officers. Each has about 5,000 guns when on a war footing. Great Britain gets along with about 425,000 men. The peace establishment of arms is about 600,000 men and officers in both Germany and France, while Russia feels it necessary to keep up an establishment of 760,000 troops and 2,500 guns. France has 3,400 guns when on a peace footing and Germany 2,800. The peace footing of Great Britain is 211,000 men and 720 guns.

The United States regular army was limited to 25,000 men until war with Spain became a fact, when the number was increased to 65,000 men. Volunteers were called, and within a few weeks over a quarter of a million men, fully armed and equipped, were in the field ready for orders. Congress has recently passed an act making a provisional increase of 35,000 men, thus enlarging the regular army to 100,000 troops. It is discretionary with the President whether these 35,000 men are pressed into service or not, and their terms expire July 1, 1901.

A humane desire on the part of the United States to bring about peace between Spain and her subjects in Cuba was the motive that engaged the United States at the outset in a clash of arms with Spain early in 1898. Cuban insurrectionists were strong enough to harass the Spanish army in Cuba but not strong enough to defeat that army. The Spanish army was not in condition to put down the armed forces of Cuba, and the result was a continued state

of war that threatened to depopulate the island by destroying all attempts at agriculture, commerce and industry. The cruelties practiced by the succession of Spanish generals that were put in charge of Spanish arms in Cuba were so outrageous and terrible as to call for interference. War was declared and Cuba was assured that she would be given her independence. One of the first and most notable incidents of the war with Spain was the utter destruction of the Spanish naval fleet at Manila, Sunday, May 1, by Commodore Dewey. Subsequently the army of the United States took possession of the Philippines, and a war that was inaugurated with the single idea of freeing Cuba from Spanish rule began with an engagement that freed nearly ten millions of native Filipinos from Spanish power. The United States holds the Philippines now by virtue of force of arms and payment to Spain of twenty millions of dollars. It has been necessary to use arms against some of the natives in order to put down a determination on their part to establish an independent government. The desire of the United States to have new outlets for her manufactured products and to establish valuable commercial relations with the Orient and the East, together with the necessity for naval stations in the Pacific, have influenced the operations of the United States Government in the far East as well as in the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands. Who shall say whether or not Nemesis may pursue us into the jungles of the Philippines or the swamps of Cuba?

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